REPORT RESUMES

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THE STATES REPORT--THE FIRST YEAR OF TITLE I, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965.

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THE OPERATIONS AND PROGRAMS CONDUCTED UNDER TITLE I OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT FOR THE EDUCATION OF DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN ARE DESCRIBED IN A SUMMARY OF THE INDIVIDUAL REPORTS SUBMITTED BY 50 STATES, THREE TERRITORIES, AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. THE REPORTS, PREPARED IN RESPONSE TO A U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION (USOE) REQUEST FOR THE STATE ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORTS, COVER TITLE I ACTIVITIES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1966. THE ACT PROVIDES FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO LOCAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES FOR SPECIAL PROGRAMS FOR DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN IN AREAS HAVING HIGH CONCENTRATIONS OF LOW-INCOME FAMILIES. PROJECTS ARE PLANNED, ADMINISTERED, AND EXECUTED BY LOCAL SCHOOLS AFTER STATE APPROVAL. BROAD GUIDELINES FOR ADMINISTRATION OF THE FUNDS WERE GIVEN BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT TO INSURE THE MONEY WOULD BE SPENT FOR CHILDREN OF POVERTY AS CONGRESS INTENDED. ALTHOUGH NEARLY ALL OF THE STATES DISTRIBUTED THE USOE REPORTING FORMS TO LOCAL AGENCIES, THE RETURNS WERE NOT OF SUFFICIENT QUALITY TO MAKE AN ACCURATE EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TITLE I PROGRAMS. ALTHOUGH APPROXIMATELY 92 PERCENT OF THE LOCAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES MET THE CRITERIA FOR ELIGIBILITY, APPROXIMATELY 30 PERCENT OF THE ELIGIBLE AGENCIES DID NOT PARTICIPATE IN TITLE I. EXPENDITURES TOTALED ABOUT 84 PERCENT OF THE ALLOCATIONS. THE AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL OF THE 8.3 MILLION SERVED WAS $119, BUT RANGED FROM $25 TO $227. DETAILED INFORMATION ON USES OF THE ALLOTED FUNDS ARE INCLUDED IN THE REPORT. (AL)

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The States Report:

THE FIRST YEAR OF
TITLE 1

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

AA000130

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

TITLE I

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

Fifty States, the District of Columbia, and three U. S. Territories report on 1965-66 compensatory education programs under Title I, Public Law 89-10.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
John W. Gardner, Secretary
Office of Education
Harold Howe II, Commissioner

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INTRODUCTION

This is the first national report of the operations and programs of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act for the education of disadvantaged children. Essentially, it is a summary of the individual reports submitted by 50 States, three territories, and the District of Columbia covering activities for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1966.

It is a report of progress and promise as well as of problems. It reveals new strengths in the American educational system as well as many difficulties in dealing with the blight of poverty in disadvantaged sections of this nation.

The dimensions of the report are broad and far-reaching:

- 8.3 million children aided in 17,481 school districts in every State in the union.
- Nearly $1 billion provided for vital educational and other services in 22,173 projects ranging from summer science camps through remedial reading, hot meals, health services, student-parent night classes, educational television, computer instruction, and bus service in isolated areas.
- 200,000 new, part-time and full-time teaching positions created.
- 180,000 part-time and full-time professional and subprofessional positions created.

For many communities the impact of Title I on local education was dramatic. The State of South Carolina said in its report that Title I "was bringing about an educational revolution." This statement is echoed in the reports of one State after another.

For millions of children served by Title I in its first year the "revolution" meant, for the first time, individual instruction in reading, writing, mathematics, and other fundamental aspects of learning. For some it was a hot meal every day, eyeglasses, and medical and psychiatric assistance. For others it meant a new library book, a concert, a visit to the zoo or to an art gallery. To an Oregon boy it meant that his classes had become so exciting that he walked 6-1/2 miles so he could get to school earlier than if he rode the bus.

"a significant impact on education"

> Across the country, from hard facts or soft data, test scores, teacher impressions, parent reactions, fingerprinted and smudged notes from children, etc., the reaction to Title I in general has been that it has, in fact, had a significant impact on education, and that the disadvantaged children are being given a greater opportunity to participate in the existing educational system. Within the first year of operation, with the mammoth problems, hang-ups, and a majority of people who completely "lost their cool," the fact that Title I got off the ground, and in addition accomplished significant gains, is pretty phenomenal.
>
> --Wisconsin

For teachers it meant a smaller class, a teacher's aide, new materials and equipment, and often the discovery of a new, hopeful attitude on the part of their students. For parents it was a new awareness of the school and its relationship to the community and to the lives of their children. For school administrators it meant additional resources to reach the goal of providing equality of educational opportunity.

This report describes projects which were in operation only about 4 months of the 1966 school year. It is based on data submitted, for the most part, in response to the Office of Education Guide for State Evaluation Reports.

Because of time limitations, lack of established evaluating procedures and techniques, failure to use achievement measuring systems, and the lack of trained evaluators, the report lacks some of the specifics of a technical evaluation report.[1] Nevertheless, a great amount of useful and illuminating information has been accumulated by the States and territories. From that information emerges a clear picture of how American schools met the mandate of Congress to provide for educationally deprived children.

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[1] A discussion of evaluation can be found on pages 13 and 14.

Background

> Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families in order to expand and improve their educational programs by various means ...which contribute particularly to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children.
>
> --Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (PL 89-10)

Signed into law by President Johnson in April 1965 and funded by Congress the following September, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) became the Nation's first large-scale attack on the educational deprivation of children of poverty. It came after a careful look at schools serving urban and rural areas of extreme poverty--schools with high dropout rates, low achievement levels, poor health and food services, inadequate staff and physical facilities, and not enough trained teachers.

In practice, the goal of Title I is to provide "compensatory education" for the millions of school children whose crippling background of poverty offers them little hope for successful schooling. California described that goal as encompassing "all services and activities which children from poverty environments need in order to have an equal opportunity to succeed in school." To Illinois, "compensatory programs represented and became a symbol of hope--hope that school activities having meaning, reality, and usefulness to their children, in their efforts to become fully functioning citizens, were being provided."

Briefly, the Act provides financial assistance to local educational agencies for special educational programs for disadvantaged children in areas having high concentrations of low-income families. Projects are planned, administered, and executed by local schools after State approval. The Federal Government lays down broad guidelines for proper administration of the funds to insure that the money is spent on children of poverty as Congress intended.

The Act also requires an evaluation of Title I programs at four different levels--by local agencies, the States, the U.S. Office of Education, and a National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children appointed by the President.

The Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare specifically requested the Office of Education:

> ...to provide it early in the next session with a report on the evaluative measures used and the findings resulting from the evaluations made, in order that cognizance may be taken of desirable changes which should be made in future perfecting legislation.

What follows is the response of the States and the Office of Education to that request.

Scope

Fifty States, the District of Columbia, and the territories of Guam, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific participated in the first year's program of Title I of the ESEA. A summary of the eligibility and participation of local educational agencies follows:

- Total local educational agencies or school districts, Fall 1965: 26,983
- Total local educational agencies eligible for Title I: 24,926
- Total local educational agencies participating in Title I: 17,481
- Total local educational agencies eligible, but not participating in Title I: 7,445

Approximately 92 percent of the Nation's local educational agencies met the criteria for eligibility[1] established in Public Law 89-10. However, of these eligible agencies, approximately 30 percent did not participate in Title I. One hundred and four of them (whose allocations accounted for about 2 percent of the total entitlement) were not in compliance with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.[1] A majority of the other 7,341 eligible local districts not participating felt that their allocations were too small to make individual or cooperative projects with other school districts practical. In some cases, the States reported, it was necessary to reject applications from local agencies with small allocations because the proposed projects failed to meet Federal or State criteria for size, scope, and quality.

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[1] Eligibility and the amounts of grants are determined by a formula based on the number of school-age children from low-income families, multiplied by one-half the State average per pupil expenditure.

In all, during the first year of operation, 8.3 million children were served by Title I and some $987.6 million was expended, including about $11 million for handicapped children under Public Law 89-313. Expenditures totaled 84 percent of the allocations.

The average Title I expenditure per pupil was $119, but the expenditure ranged from about $25 to $227. For many States this represented a substantial increase over average current per-pupil expenditures, the national average being about $532 for 1965-66.

Nearly 52 percent of the $987.6 million in Title I funds the first year was spent on instruction; about two-thirds of that amount was spent for language arts and remedial reading, which were identified as the top priority by the majority of local educational agencies.

Some 21 percent of the total was spent on educational equipment, and about 10 percent was spent for construction. Food and health services accounted for 4.5 percent of the total expenditures.

Exhibit 1 shows estimated expenditures by category for fiscal year 1966.

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[1] Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 states: "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

Exhibit 1. Estimated Expenditures for FY 1966

Category	Amount	Percent
Administration	$ 31,813,859	3.3
Instruction	500,486,317	51.6
Attendance Services	4,849,674	.5
Health Services	22,308,498	2.3
Pupil Transportation Services	16,585,884	1.7
Operation of Plant	8,244,445	.8
Maintenance of Plant	6,789,543	.7
Fixed Charges	32,201,832	3.3
Food Services	20,958,590	2.2
Student Body Activities	2,036,863	.2
Community Services	6,118,588	.6
Minor Remodeling	15,518,956	1.6
Initial or Additional Equipment	204,686,292	21.2
Construction	97,335,383	10.0
Total	$969,934,724	100.0
Handicapped (PL 89-313)	$ 11,165,689	-
State Administration	6,495,758	-
Grand Total	$987,596,171	

Nearly 65 percent of the participants in Title I programs were in preschool through grade 6. Ninety-two percent of the students were enrolled in public schools and 6 percent in nonpublic schools. About 2 percent of the students were not enrolled in school. Exhibit 2 shows the distribution by grade level and by type of enrollment of children who received Title I assistance.

Exhibit 2. Number of Children Who Received Title I Assistance, by Grade Level and Type of Enrollment

Enrollment	Total	Pre-kindergarten	Kindergarten	Grades			
				1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12
Total	8,299,900	103,400	377,800	2,437,300	2,427,300	1,788,200	1,165,900
Public	7,596,900	80,500	325,200	2,244,100	2,216,800	1,648,500	1,081,800
Nonpublic	526,600	5,400	20,800	166,500	184,300	108,200	41,400
Not Enrolled	176,400	17,500	31,800	26,700	26,200	31,500	42,700

I. SUMMARY

A. Programs

The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 set the stage for dramatic change in thousands of school districts across the country. Educators, administrators, and teachers suddenly had additional resources to seek new ways of tackling old problems. The emphasis was on quality education, achieved through better teaching and intensified individual instruction. The key words were "innovation," "experimentation," and "intensification."

Called upon to identify the needs that could be reached with Title I funds, the States specified more than 120. To reach these needs, Title I projects were concerned with 12 major areas:

Reading
Academic achievement
Other communication skills
Instruction and curriculum
Attitudes and behavior
Administration/teaching/other
Equipment/facilities
Health and welfare services
Programs for handicapped children
Preschool/kindergarten
Summer programs
Library development

State reports show that the approaches used most often to effect improvement in these areas were:

- Use of aides and other subprofessionals
- Use of specialized personnel
- Teacher/staff training
- New, improved, and expanded academic programs
- Provision of equipment, facilities, and supplies

Other means used to achieve Title I objectives included summer programs, health services, remedial reading, library services, food and physical services, and special equipment and materials.

Reading

Most Title I programs, according to the State reports, were concerned with developing reading and language skills. Various approaches toward overcoming reading deficiencies were used. Reading and language skills centers provided new reading assistance programs. Clinical diagnosis and remedial programs helped pupils to overcome severe reading disabilities associated with behavioral or emotional disorders.

Children who were unable to speak English or who had marked difficulty with it because of their cultural background participated in projects in which English was taught as a foreign language. Intensive oral instruction, coupled with the understanding and support of able and dedicated teachers, encouraged rapid progress. These services were especially important to Mexican-Americans, Indians, and Puerto Ricans.

Arithmetic

Remedial and corrective programs in mathematics were developed. These programs sought to identify the special needs of culturally deprived pupils and develop new instructional materials, methods, and techniques to meet these needs.

Cultural Enrichment

Children who had never been beyond the confines of urban ghettos and rural poverty areas were exposed to new worlds through cultural enrichment experiences. According to a North Carolina school system, these experiences "provided for many children a new outlook on life. For many it was their first experience outside of their county or town. They visited such places as the zoo, the planetarium, a city, a dairy, an industrial plant, Raleigh, our State Capital, saw an ocean, visited the scene of the Wright Brothers' Memorial, etc. Their experience allowed them to develop vocabulary concepts, and promoted oral and written expression also...."

"new vision... a deepened interest in education"

This program has allowed and provided pupils a chance to learn by bringing about a better school environment and extending services heretofore unheard of in the schools of this state. Materials, equipment, improved facilities, food services, health services, and other specialized services have brought about an atmosphere more conducive to learning. Perhaps of equal importance has been the capture of a new vision by teachers and this vision, this enthusiastic spirit, has been caught by pupils and translated into improved attitudes and a deepened interest in education.

--Mississippi

Preschool

Preschool programs were developed to provide early childhood educational opportunities for boys and girls from poverty environments. These programs included not only special instructional assistance but also health services and parent and community involvement. Nearly 500,000 children are now being provided with pre-first-grade education by Title I.

New Services

Other new services included study centers, tutoring services, in-service training of staff, reduction of teaching load, and dropout and absence prevention. Many projects were designed to change the negative attitude that thousands of pupils display toward school.

Health Services

Health and nutritional services (including clothing, eyeglasses, breakfasts, lunches, and medical, dental, psychiatric and nursing services) were among the most effective of Title I projects, according to State reports. Although no State ranked health services as the number one pupil need, such services were termed particularly successful by the States.

Handicapped

Local school systems made special provisions under Title I for handicapped children in their classrooms, while special funding under Public Law 89-313 allowed handicapped children in State-supported institutions to receive additional attention.

B. Achievements

Perhaps the major impact of Title I has been to provide educationally deprived children with more individual attention. It has been possible to emphasize the personal element in a national program that reaches more than 8 million children. In many cases, teaching focused for the first time directly on the particular needs of the individual boy or girl.

Some 45 percent of the States emphasized the importance of increased individual attention. Nebraska, for example, stated that a "significant virtue of Title I is that the less academically oriented child who traditionally has been neglected or rejected in our classrooms is receiving special attention; he is achieving a degree of success." Or, as a boy in Iowa put it, "Happiness is two teachers so you can be helped when you need it."

Creativity and Diversity

In its evaluation report, Ohio said that the impact of Title I is summed up by words such as "vibrant, exploratory, reflective, child-centered and challenging."

Hundreds of diverse and innovative projects sponsored in communities across the Nation testify to the creative energies released by Title I. New ideas were sought, not for change's sake, but because new approaches were needed to break through the apathy, distrust, and intellectual inertia which often surround the child from poverty areas.

These projects illustrate the wide range of programs created by local school districts:

- In a Washington farm community, two nurses aides (one of whom spoke Spanish) treated children of migrant farm workers.

- New York City assembled teams of specialists--reading experts, counselors, and psychiatrists--for intensive work with preschoolers.
- A Tennessee project developed wireless auditory training units for deaf children.
- A Louisiana school developed "English as a foreign language" for children of Cuban refugees and resident aliens from South America.
- An Iowa school provided evening classes for high school dropouts.
- A specially trained liaison worker was hired by a Texas project to visit families and children and evaluate needs.

Dropouts

A quarter of the States commented that Title I projects are encouraging students to continue their education rather than drop out of school. Increasing numbers of Title I students are beginning to talk of continuing their education beyond high school. New educational opportunities provided by the projects have awakened new interests and instilled new confidence.

About one-fifth of the States noted improved pupil attitudes toward school and education, and about the same proportion reported higher student achievement, especially in reading.[1] The Alabama report said that the full impact of Title I on the pupil's achievement rate is yet to be objectively assessed, but added: "However, early informal observation and evaluation by educators most intimately associated with programs indicate that this impact will be unquestionable and dramatic."

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[1] Several States noted that most achievement gains occurred for younger children. For example, the North Dakota report comments that "generally, the younger the children, the more progress made.... It appears to take a longer period of time to develop this cooperation and enthusiasm in older children."

New Equipment

Nearly 45 percent of the States reported that the increase in the amount of new equipment and materials made possible by Title I funds was of significant benefit to their disadvantaged children. Kansas pointed out that the need for specialized equipment had long been noted "but could not be realized due to the limited school budgets. Title I furnished these needs and in nearly every respect the results were amazing, considering the time the program has been in practice."

"Somebody Cares"

About one-third of the States commented on a bonus effect of Title I that is not strictly educational. One State report described it as "a generally positive uplifting influence on students. The program is making it clear to students that at last 'somebody cares.'"

The Texas Title I annual evaluation said:

> Consultants of the Division of Compensatory Education, through on-site visits to classrooms, frequently observed high levels of interest and application of pupils, increased feelings of self-worth as a result of new clothing or special attention, and a kind of blossoming of spirit in pupils who, it appeared likely, had previously been submissive and withdrawn. In some cases, consultants were told by teachers that a particular pupil would not participate at all when the program began, and that subsequently he was almost too eager to talk and interact, and that another pupil had begun to give attention to his clothing and grooming. Many teachers reported that pupils who had always been apathetic and passive had begun to take a lively interest in schoolwork and to ask for things to do. The total configuration of Title I activities and services--special attention coupled with the feeling that someone cares, and opportunities to perform successfully and receive recognition--appear to have contributed substantially to the enhancement of interest and the redirecting of attitudes for many educationally deprived children.

Teacher and Child

Teachers in Title I projects have learned to help culturally disadvantaged children more effectively and with a greater depth of understanding than ever before. More than one-fourth of the States noted this development. In some cases, the teacher's own self-image was enhanced. For example, the Tennessee report stated:

> One of the most dramatic effects of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act has been a change in the educational climate.... The introduction of the Title I "philosophy," which was not new to the teachers of the deprived schools but was simply a crystallization of their often verbalized aspirations for their pupils, schools, and communities, stimulated them to new action. Perhaps it is this revitalization itself that reflected the impact of Title I legislation most dramatically....
>
> Most teachers were stimulated to restate old and new objectives with the feeling that they might now reach fruition.... The image of the 'poverty school culture' is changing from one of inferiority to one of progressing professionalism. If these efforts are reinforced appropriately, one could anticipate many more advances in the future.

Effects on Educators

Those who plan and evaluate educational programs also were stimulated. About 25 percent of the States praised Title I for furthering the efforts of educators in planning, studying, and evaluating education in general and education for the disadvantaged in particular.

Several States noted that Title I requirements have stimulated local districts to assess their school programs in terms of individual pupil needs, rather than school or system needs. New York's report said that Title I has caused educators to reexamine the responsibility and role of the school in the education of the culturally disadvantaged.

"insight into the problems"

Probably the most outstanding effect of Title I in general has been on educators themselves. Most have gained insight into the problems and needs of deprived children who in most instances make up at least one-third of the school population. The program has caused educators to assess their school programs from the standpoint of individual needs rather than the needs of the schools.

--Arkansas

Strengthening State Agencies

The program was frequently credited with having given new vigor to the leadership capabilities of State Departments of Education. The funds provided under Title I for administration and under Title V of the ESEA for the strengthening of State Departments of Education made it possible for the States to develop greater resources and add specialized personnel.

Some States, for example, have expanded their capacity in data processing to cover all areas of Title I administration. Many States have also begun to provide local agencies with the technical assistance that is vital to program planning, development, and evaluation.

Consultants were sent out to help local districts with their projects. State agencies made specialists available in such program areas as reading, guidance counseling, testing, and educational television. One result has been an increase in dialogue between State and local agencies.

Cooperation and Coordination

Judging from the State reports, Title I also has fostered a new spirit of cooperation and coordination among school districts. A unique provision in the Title I legislation gave local districts the opportunity to launch jointly planned and operated programs. School districts have pooled their resources and started interdistrict programs to meet common needs such as the special training of teachers, the hiring of educational specialists, and the development of programs of special services.

Another area of cooperation involves local school districts and local community action agencies. They have cooperated in working toward meeting the total needs of the disadvantaged child. Title I programs have worked to bridge educational gaps; community action programs have launched supportive services. The one has reinforced the other in building a foundation for programs for preschoolers and for coordinated activities and services for all disadvantaged children.

"a revolutionary educational venture"

In this short period of time we have passed through the embryonic stage of a revolutionary educational venture. Much has been learned. We have become knowledgeable about the needs of educationally deprived children; but in no way can we now consider ourselves experts, nor claim that these needs are completely fulfilled. We are in our infancy - still crawling, exploring, and learning - filled with the great desire that soon we will gain our dexterity and motor coordination in this area, as we have done previously in so many areas within the educational spectrum.

--New Hampshire

Staffing and Training

Title I programs have created an enormous demand for teachers, specialists, professionals, and subprofessionals. Many States reported serious shortages of personnel and are trying to solve the shortages through special training, use of subprofessionals, and new recruitment methods.

They have sought the help of universities in the areas of curriculum development, inservice training, and evaluation. They have brought experienced, retired teachers back to the schools. They have tapped community resources for nonprofessional assistance and have encouraged parents to participate in the educational process.

Forty-eight of the fifty-four reporting agencies told of turning to salaried subprofessionals (often termed "aides" or "assistants"). By handling certain tasks, these aides free the teacher to spend more time on professional duties. Though most of these subprofessionals were used in the classroom, many assisted in the library, playground, nurse's office, and business office.

Some agencies have used volunteers from VISTA, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, and various community clubs and organizations. Older students have helped. Twenty-five States reported that local agencies had managed to increase or extend the assignments of existing staff through summer programs, night classes, and Saturday programs. Other approaches to recruiting additional staff included hiring of consultants and greater use of substitute teachers.

Although staff salaries accounted for 41 percent of Title I expenditures, the figure would have been higher had more qualified personnel been available at the time projects were scheduled to begin.

Inservice training programs were reported by 51 of the 54 reporting agencies. The three techniques most frequently employed were (1) local agency training, (2) institutes conducted by colleges or universities, and (3) college course enrollment subsidized by the local agency.

One State report said of the impact of Title I on staff training: "Many schools have had more inservice training under Title I than during the prior 10-year period."

In general, the States found that Title I has:

- Provided additional and improved teaching services.
- Had a positive, uplifting influence on staff.
- Permitted inservice training for teachers and staff.
- Helped staff to understand and help culturally deprived children.
- Provided for experimental instructional approaches.
- Fostered and encouraged constructive new ideas.
- Provided consultants for school personnel.
- Improved teaching techniques.
- Provided planning time.
- Provided financial incentives for inservice training.

Parents and the Community

Parents and the community also have felt the impact of Title I. Parents have become involved--often for the first time--in programs for their children, in conferences and parent education classes, and as classroom aides and community spokesmen.

States reported these positive benefits of parent and community participation:

- Increased parental interest in children's education.
- Improved school-community relations.
- Greater parental involvement in school and community.

- Increased awareness of the importance of comprehensive, quality education.
- Better cooperation between the school and other agencies.
- Improved home-school relations.
- Improved attitudes toward racial integration.
- Involvement of teachers and parents in child study programs.

One midwestern State pointed out that programs stressing parental involvement were vital and popular.

> Those projects which brought parents and/or students into the early planning stages of the program, which took pains to discern the current image of the school in the community, to listen to the parents' definition of his children's needs, to listen to a child's perception of his school and his life--these programs were frequently oversubscribed.

The report from Ohio records the same dynamic quality in parent-community programs. Referring to "enthusiasm and vigor in the classroom," the report notes that "this revitalization" of interest spread to "otherwise uninvolved parent and lay groups in matters of educational concern."

Nonpublic Schools

In drawing up the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Congress provided for participation of nonpublic school children from poverty backgrounds in Title I programs. State agencies reported that, during the first year, over 525,000 children from nonpublic schools were involved.

Reports from the States generally indicated that there might have been more participation by nonpublic school students if local agencies had made a more intensive effort to involve nonpublic schools in planning and executing the Title I programs. Nevertheless, many States reported that lines of communication between public and nonpublic schools have been established and improved. Often for the first time, public and nonpublic school administrators have come together to plan and coordinate certain activities.

The Big Cities

Title I programs in 32 of the largest school systems in the country involved about 1.5 million participants, 18 percent of the national total. The 25,000 new elementary and secondary teaching positions in Title I programs in these 32 cities approximate the total teaching staff in a city the size of Chicago.

Local apprehension about future Federal funding apparently caused some cities to incorporate Title I programs into their educational systems only on a short-term basis. This uncertainty was cited as a major factor affecting both administrative and educational decisions. Comment from the cities frequently focused on the need for assurance of Federal commitment to continue programs once they have been started.

Interrelationships of the Titles of ESEA

The five titles of ESEA were planned as a coordinated program to strengthen the entire structure of American education. Educators and the architects of the legislation hoped that ESEA would become a powerful force for bringing innovation to the schools.

State reports indicate that the most prevalent interrelationship between titles of ESEA at the local level existed between Title I and Title II, which provides additional library materials. Most States reported that the two titles were used in a mutually reinforcing manner. There were many instances of interaction between Title I and Title III (supplementary centers and services), but relatively few involved coordinated planning. There was no extensive evidence of interaction between Title I and Title IV (educational research).

Title V of ESEA is designed to strengthen the capacity of State Departments of Education to provide leadership. Since Title I is a State-administered program, the States responded to Title I needs by augmenting their staffs and services with Title V funds.

C. The Future: Problems, Objectives, Recommendations

The sheer magnitude of the Title I concept presented a major organizational and administrative challenge to Federal, State and local educators charged with responsibility for carrying out the program. State and local agencies took on the vast task with optimism and initiative. Some 22,000 projects were planned, analyzed, funded, administered, and executed with a relatively high degree of success.

Still, many difficulties plagued State and local agencies. The guide for evaluation and reporting sent to the States by the Office of Education asked for an analysis of problems and recommendations for solutions. Much of this Title I report deals with these problems and recommendations, as reported by the States in their evaluations.

Evaluation

This report represents the first national effort at self-evaluation of broad educational programs designed to assist educationally deprived children. Although it falls far short of long-range goals for accurate assessment of progress, it represents an historic first step in building an evaluation model for the future. It provides a guide for State and local agencies to improve their evaluation procedures, and it illuminates the need for more attention to the testing and assessment objectives of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

The basis of this evaluation report was the U.S. Office of Education Guide for State Annual Evaluation Reports, a reporting form provided the States as a model for their own evaluation guidelines and reporting forms for distribution to local educational agencies (see Appendix C). Although nearly all of the States distributed the U.S. Office of Education form to local educational agencies, the returns were not of sufficient quality to make an accurate evaluation of the effectiveness of Title I programs.

As reported by the States, these were the major evaluation problems encountered at both local and State levels:

- Misinterpretation of requirements by local agencies.
- Lack of time to acquaint local agencies with requirements.
- Shortage of evaluation personnel.
- Lack of time to review evaluation reports.
- Limitations in data processing capability.

Three other factors severely limited the effectiveness of the first year's evaluation efforts:

- The short duration of many of the programs. Most Title I programs during the regular school season had been in operation for only 3 or 4 months by the end of the fiscal year in June 1966.
- A lack of appropriate tests and instruments designed to measure the specific handicaps and disabilities identified with culturally and educationally deprived children.
- A lack of compatibility among the various measuring instruments used by the local educational agencies.

Major Problems Reported

The administrative problems reported by State educational agencies (SEAs) in their first year of experience with Title I programs fell within three major areas: reviewing proposals, operations and services, and evaluation[1] (see Exhibit I-1).

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[1] These three categories were cited as examples in the Office of Education Evaluation Report Form. SEAs generally adhered to them in their reports.

Exhibit I-1. State Problems in Administering Title I Programs

Problems	Number of SEAs Reporting Problems Reviewing Proposals	Operations and Services	Evaluation
Personnel	24	38	18
Guidelines and Regulations	28	9	6
Funding	15	19	-
Administration	16	8	4
Program Design and Implementation	10	12	3
Community Understanding and Involvement	3	3	-
Evaluation Techniques	-	-	37
Miscellaneous Evaluation Problems	-	-	12
No Problems	7	2	3
No Response	1	2	2

A major source of difficulty, according to the SEAs, was the conflict between Congressional appropriation procedures and the traditional funding schedule of the schools. States reported that the Congressional appropriations cycle is not properly meshed with the school budgeting cycle. Local school districts also said that they were hesitant to plan programs and hire additional personnel without some assurance that a specific level of funding would be maintained over several years.

Many States observed that the problem of the persistent shortage of specialized personnel had been magnified by Title I, particularly among reading specialists, guidance-counselors, school psychologists, social workers, special education personnel, and experts in evaluation (see Exhibit I-2).

SEAs also observed that some local educational agency (LEA) Title I proposals placed much emphasis on features of general aid to education, such as the purchase of equipment and construction for the entire school system, rather than on the provision of special activities and services for the disadvantaged. Part of this confusion concerning the appropriate use of Title I funds may have arisen from failure to adhere to Section 205(a)(1)B of Public Law 89-10, which calls upon LEAs to design programs "which are of sufficient size, scope, and quality to give reasonable promise of substantial progress toward meeting... the special educational needs of educationally deprived children" (see Exhibit I-3).

Recommendations and Suggestions

The major recommendation that emerged from the State reports is: Congress should appropriate funds earlier and for longer periods of time.

The school district planning cycle typically calls for budgeting funds in the spring for expenditures beginning the following fall. Twenty-seven of the States suggested that allocations be determined early in the spring. The cities particularly emphasized the importance of long-term funding.

READING SPECIALISTS AND GUIDANCE COUNSELORS AMONG MAJOR PERSONNEL SHORTAGES

Exhibit I-2. Personnel Shortages by Type of Personnel and Community Size

	Percent of States Responding[1]					
	Community Size[2]					
Type of Personnel	A	B	C	D	E	O[3]
Classroom Teachers	19	12	27	26	23	33
Administrators	26	18	35	32	35	11
Guidance Counselors	52	53	54	48	58	44
Librarians	15	18	15	16	19	6
Special Education Personnel	15	18	23	16	19	22
Health Service Personnel	11	12	15	23	27	17
Reading Specialists	56	65	62	42	54	56
Social Workers	30	12	30	26	19	22
Speech Therapists	26	12	12	16	15	17
Psychologists	44	18	35	23	23	22
Not Specified	70	59	54	71	58	78

Notes: (1) A total of 54 SEAs reported for all community sizes.
(2) A through E: See Appendix C, page 127.
(3) State as a unit, rather than by community size.

OVEREMPHASIS ON EQUIPMENT, SUPPLIES, AND CONSTRUCTION PRIMARY REASON FOR PROPOSAL REJECTION

Exhibit I-3. Number of States Rejecting Project Proposals on the Basis of Size, Scope, and Quality, by Reason for Rejection

Reason for Rejection	Number of States		
	Size	Scope	Quality
Identification of Target Areas and Needs	14	12	11
Misconceptions of Legislative Intent(1)	2	16	-
Emphasis on Equipment, Supplies, Construction	1	41	5
Funding or Fiscal Areas	3	5	-
Nonpublic School Factors	1	3	-
Planning, Design, Implementation, and Methodology	8	14	14
Other	9	11	8

Note: (1) Includes Title I as a general aid measure.

Another recommendation frequently made was that the Office of Education guidelines and regulations be available prior to the start of the fiscal year.

Both recommendations, if followed, would result in more effective planning, development, recruitment, and implementation of projects, the States said.

Some States recommended that Title I provide general aid, include more children in the program, and permit greater use of funds for construction. A major administrative suggestion was that all titles of the Act be incorporated under one approval agency to simplify application and approval procedures for the local agencies.

Other recommendations were:

- That the Office of Education be more specific in writing guidelines for size, scope, and quality of Title I projects.
- That provisions be made for cooperative interstate projects between school districts in adjoining States.
- That the roles of local school districts and community action agencies in coordinating Title I projects be clarified.
- That more ESEA Title IV research funds be devoted to learning problems of the disadvantaged.

D. What the States Said About Title I

Following are excerpts from the evaluation reports submitted by State agencies:

ALASKA	The fiscal 1966 programs under Title I, ESEA, have been most effective in enhancing educational opportunities for disadvantaged youth.
ARKANSAS	Probably the most outstanding effect of Title I in general has been on educators themselves. Most have gained insight into the problems and needs of deprived children who in most instances make up at least one-third of the school population. The program has caused educators to assess their school programs from the standpoint of individual needs rather than the needs of the schools.

CALIFORNIA	School district personnel generally agree that the students improved in attitude, motivation and interest toward learning. As these are important factors in learning, continued growth may be anticipated. Teachers also reported a positive change in their own attitudes towards these children and in their techniques in working with disadvantaged children.
CONNECTICUT	There is considerable evidence that teachers, administrators, and other persons associated with our schools feel that progress is being made in improving the educational opportunities of deprived children and youth.
DELAWARE	The children...became more anxious to succeed at their own rate and they worked in small groups with much more ease and confidence....
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	In general, the allotment of large sums of money for programs providing individual services which have never been possible before has actually been a tremendous impetus and uplifting influence upon both students and professional staff of the District.
FLORIDA	This program is helping almost helpless children to gain confidence in themselves. It is affording opportunities for experiences that will "widen their horizons" and help them to develop a new outlook on life.
GEORGIA	Superintendents, principals, teachers, and Title I staff workers on the State and local level approach consensus in lauding the enhancement of educational opportunities, experiences, achievement, and general attitudes for Title I beneficiaries and "spin off" benefits for all others in the educational institution.
GUAM	Title I has enhanced education of the deprived by providing educational experiences which would have not been possible due to financial conditions in our school system.
HAWAII	The results have proven most beneficial to both teachers and students: since more time can be devoted to classroom preparations and the actual instructions, the quality of teaching improved.

IDAHO	Many children have had cultural experiences that might not have been available in their lifetimes if it had not been for Title I.
ILLINOIS	Perhaps one of the most important accomplishments of Title I is the improved attitude on the part of teachers and other school personnel working with these disadvantaged children.
INDIANA	It seems that the future of the disadvantaged in these local educational agencies was heightened by their Title I programs.
IOWA	The Title I project in some cases has had a significant impact on the entire staff of the LEA and will probably precipitate different types of experiences not only for the Title I children but for the other children in the local education agency as well.
KANSAS	For the first time, the underprivileged student could realize and take part in the cultural advantages of the more privileged group of society.
KENTUCKY	There is no doubt that Title I projects are having a great impact on educational opportunities, experiences and general attitudes toward education as they relate to culturally deprived students.
MAINE	For the first time, in many instances, school personnel have been able to provide special attention to the educationally disadvantaged children, and to concentrate their efforts in an attempt to meet the needs of these children. The reported results have been most rewarding.... Thousands of children have been helped.
MARYLAND	Indications are that educational opportunities have indeed been extended significantly through this program and that it has provided experiences which should result in improved levels of achievement and in much improved general attitude toward education.
MASSACHUSETTS	Insofar as it can be determined at this time, there is a very real "carry over" of project benefits, both academically and attitudinally,

	from the period of project operation through present time. This is, to us, one of the marked accomplishments of the program.
MICHIGAN	This was the first time the spotlight has been placed on the deprived youngster and as a result many teachers gave serious thought to improving methods in this area.
MISSISSIPPI	This program has allowed and provided pupils a chance to learn by bringing about a better school environment and extending services heretofore unheard of in the schools of this state. Materials, equipment, improved facilities, food services, health services, and other specialized services have brought about an atmosphere more conducive to learning. Perhaps of equal importance has been the capture of a new vision by teachers and this vision, this enthusiastic spirit, has been caught by pupils and translated into improved attitudes and a deepened interest in education.
MISSOURI	General observation of Title I projects in operation indicate there has been a substantial amount of good derived from the services provided through this program.
MONTANA	Nearly all schools reported good cooperation with and from nonpublic school officials. One school superintendent reported outstanding cooperation from the nonpublic school, and indicated that he believed the public relations for the public school were improved.
NEBRASKA	Title I students and teachers seem to have an enthusiasm for learning that is not so apparent in the regular classes.
NEVADA	Title I...has forced the public schools, colleges, universities, and the lay public to become more aware of a certain segment of the student population of the nation's schools. As a result... we have seen evidence of many efforts to provide compensatory educational programs and services to a group of youngsters who otherwise would still have been floundering in the regular school program.

NEW HAMPSHIRE	In this short period of time we have passed through the embryonic stage of a revolutionary educational venture. Much has been learned. We have become knowledgeable about the need of educationally deprived children; but in no way can we now consider ourselves experts, nor claim that these needs are completely fulfilled.
NEW MEXICO	If we are to grade ourselves on a total evaluation of our Title I Program, we feel that we must give ourselves a superior rating.
OKLAHOMA	The ESEA program has allowed more flexibility in the providing of necessary facilities, personnel, materials and equipment required to provide equal and upgraded educational opportunities for the school children of this state. These deprived students...have shown much progress in achievement areas and an overall improvement of attitude toward school.
OREGON	There has been gratification in the response and interest on the part of the children.... Many school administrators and teachers became much more aware of the needs of these educationally disadvantaged children.... If Title I continues over a period of many years the results should be excellent in bringing about improvement for the educationally disadvantaged child.
SOUTH CAROLINA	For the first year of operation Title I has begun to provide high priority schools with the basic services and programs enjoyed as a matter of course by schools located in more affluent areas. There is a beginning being made toward a more sophisticated evaluation of the characteristics and needs of the deprived.
SOUTH DAKOTA	Many excellent projects have been initiated.... Particularly gratifying were those programs dealing with health, teacher aides, instructional secretaries, guidance, special education, pilot studies, and teaching load reduction.... A well trained teacher with adequate facilities can be of primary importance if her time is not taken up with all sorts of administrative duties and her class load is within reason.

TENNESSEE	The introduction of the Title I philosophy, which was not new to the teachers in the deprived schools but was simply a crystallization of their often verbalized aspirations for their pupils, schools, and communities, stimulated them to new action. Perhaps it is this revitalization itself that reflected the impact of Title I legislation most dramatically....
TEXAS	There is no doubt that pupil achievement was heightened in many instances, in areas of behavior far beyond the traditional academic subjects.
TRUST TERRITORY	The Title I program is helping the deprived schools of Micronesia bridge the gap between isolated island life and the technological 20th century. The program is providing teachers, supplies, and equipment, so necessary for creating educational opportunities for children that have little or no concept of what exists beyond the reefs of their small islands.... A number of projects have provided job-related experiences that were designed to help youth master social skills needed to become self-supporting, self-respecting, and self-directing.
UTAH	It would be safe to say that most of the projects showed greater than normally expected achievement, growth, and that a much greater breadth of experiences was provided for the educationally disadvantaged children than is normal. It caused educators to plan and evaluate more in depth than had previously been the case.
VERMONT	Remedial reading programs have shown substantial gains in reading skills and in overcoming a feeling of inferiority arising from under-achievement.
VIRGIN ISLANDS	Title I motivated staff in changing complacent attitudes toward the educational needs of disadvantaged children.
VIRGINIA	Title I is seen by the LEA as a tool for combating the dropout problem by means of early remediation, attendance and counseling service and an offering of realistic vocational and industrial courses which will hold the child's interest through to graduation and provide him with skills to find a job after high school.

WASHINGTON	It can be generalized that Title I has enhanced the educational opportunities, experiences, achievements and general attitudes [of children] towards education.
WISCONSIN	Across the country, from hard facts or soft data, test scores, teacher impressions, parent reactions, fingerprinted and smudged notes from children, etc., the reaction to Title I in general has been that it has, in fact, had a significant impact on education, and that the disadvantaged children are being given a greater opportunity to participate in the existing educational system. Within the first year of operation, with the mammoth problems, hang-ups, and a majority of people who completely "lost their cool," the fact that Title I got off the ground, and in addition accomplished significant gains, is pretty phenomenal.
WYOMING	Title I has been very successful in changing the attitudes of children, teachers, parents, and administrators.

II. HOW THE STATES IDENTIFIED AND MET CHILDREN'S NEEDS

A. Ranking the Most Pressing Needs

Each State reviewed the evaluation reports of the local school districts and determined the most pressing pupil needs statewide. From these State reports emerged a list of more than 120 different entries, which fell into 12 major areas, as follows:

1. Reading

    To improve reading skills

    To reduce reading deficiencies

    To provide reading readiness programs

2. Academic Achievement

    To improve performance on achievement tests

    To enhance general school achievement

    To upgrade basic skills

3. Other Communication Skills

    To improve understanding and use of language concepts and skills

    To raise level of verbal functioning

4. Instruction and Curriculum

    To provide more individual instruction and attention

    To offer more cultural experiences and opportunities

    To make available vocational training

    To expand music programs

    To improve study habits

5. Attitudes and Behavior

    To develop positive self-image

    To create positive attitudes toward school and education

    To develop expectation of success rather than failure in school

    To lower dropout rate

6. Teachers and Parents

    To provide inservice training for teachers and staff

    To obtain more teachers and personnel, both professional and nonprofessional, who are especially trained for work with culturally deprived children

    To improve parental involvement

7. Equipment/Facilities

    To create places to study

    To provide more teaching supplies, books, and equipment

    To offer transportation

8. Health and Welfare
    - To improve general health
    - To provide mental health services
    - To improve nutrition
    - To provide adequate clothing

9. Handicapped
    - To extend help to the mentally retarded
    - To offer general help for special education programs
    - To provide speech therapy for speech-impaired children

10. Preschool/Kindergarten
    - To give preschool experiences
    - To initiate kindergarten programs

11. Summer Programs
    - To initiate or expand summer programs
    - To run summer camps

12. Library Development
    - To offer library services
    - To make available more books

Of the 52 States[1] that ranked the areas in which disadvantaged children needed help, 17 volunteered some reference to the criteria they had used.[2] Among these, five said their school districts had determined problem areas through test scores and observable pupil deficiencies. Three States said that the problem areas reported had been recognized so long that no additional testing was necessary. Two States said they had asked the school districts to establish a rating scale by which pupil needs would be ranked in a descending order of urgency.

Improving the reading ability of educationally deprived children was considered the most pressing concern. Somewhat unexpectedly, no State gave first ranking to improved health and nutrition. Some

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[1] Two of the 54 reporting units did not submit data on pupil needs. The term "State" includes as reporting units the District of Columbia and certain territories.

[2] States had not been specifically asked to discuss their criteria for identifying most pressing pupil needs.

States did, however, rank health second and some third. A number of States rated as "pupil" needs such school improvements as the purchase of equipment.

When population categories were pooled,[1] the frequency with which the most pressing concerns were reported is shown below:

	Number of States Reporting
Reading	29
Academic Achievement	11
General Abilities (includes language development)	8
Administration, Teaching, Other	2
Attitudes and Behavior	1
Instruction, Curriculum	1
Total	52

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[1] For the States which identified pupil needs by population category, the following criteria were used to determine the single most pressing statewide need: (1) If all population categories ranked a need as the most pressing, that need was assumed to be the most pressing statewide need (13 States). (2) If within a State different population categories had different first-ranking needs, the need which was reported for most population categories was considered to be the most pressing statewide need; in case of a tie, the first-ranking need for the largest of the two population categories was considered the most pressing statewide need (19 States). (3) For States responding as a whole, the first-ranked need automatically became the most pressing statewide pupil need (20 States).

As indicated above, 29 of the 52 reporting States ranked first the need to improve reading skills and to reduce reading deficiencies. Only 6 of the 12 major need categories were designated "most" important in any report. Forty-eight of the fifty-two responding States reported the need for improvement in reading, academic achievement, or general abilities, including language development, as the most pressing need for children eligible for assistance under Title I programs.

Standardized Achievement Tests

To help spot academic deficiencies, the States were asked to submit achievement test results for children in Title I projects. In addition to reporting test scores, States were asked to indicate the number of children in the test groups whose scores fell (1) on or below the 25th percentile, (2) between the 26th and 50th percentile, (3) between the 51st and 75th percentile, and (4) between the 76th and 99th percentile.[1]

Exhibits II-1 and II-2 show, for various grade spans, the percent of children scoring on or below the 25th percentile on several standardized reading and arithmetic achievement tests. Placements are based on pretest scores, and only test groups containing more than 90 children are represented in the exhibits.[2]

The States reported that for nearly all groups cited, more than two-thirds of the students tested did in fact score below the 50th percentile. Less than 10 percent of the grades 7-9 and 10-12 groups had reading scores above the 50th percentile.

Since the results depicted are not based on a statistical sample, they are not necessarily representative of Title I children in general. They do indicate, however, the degree to which many Title I participants were achieving below grade level. They illustrate that these children fall behind their classmates in ever increasing numbers as they progress through the 12 grades.

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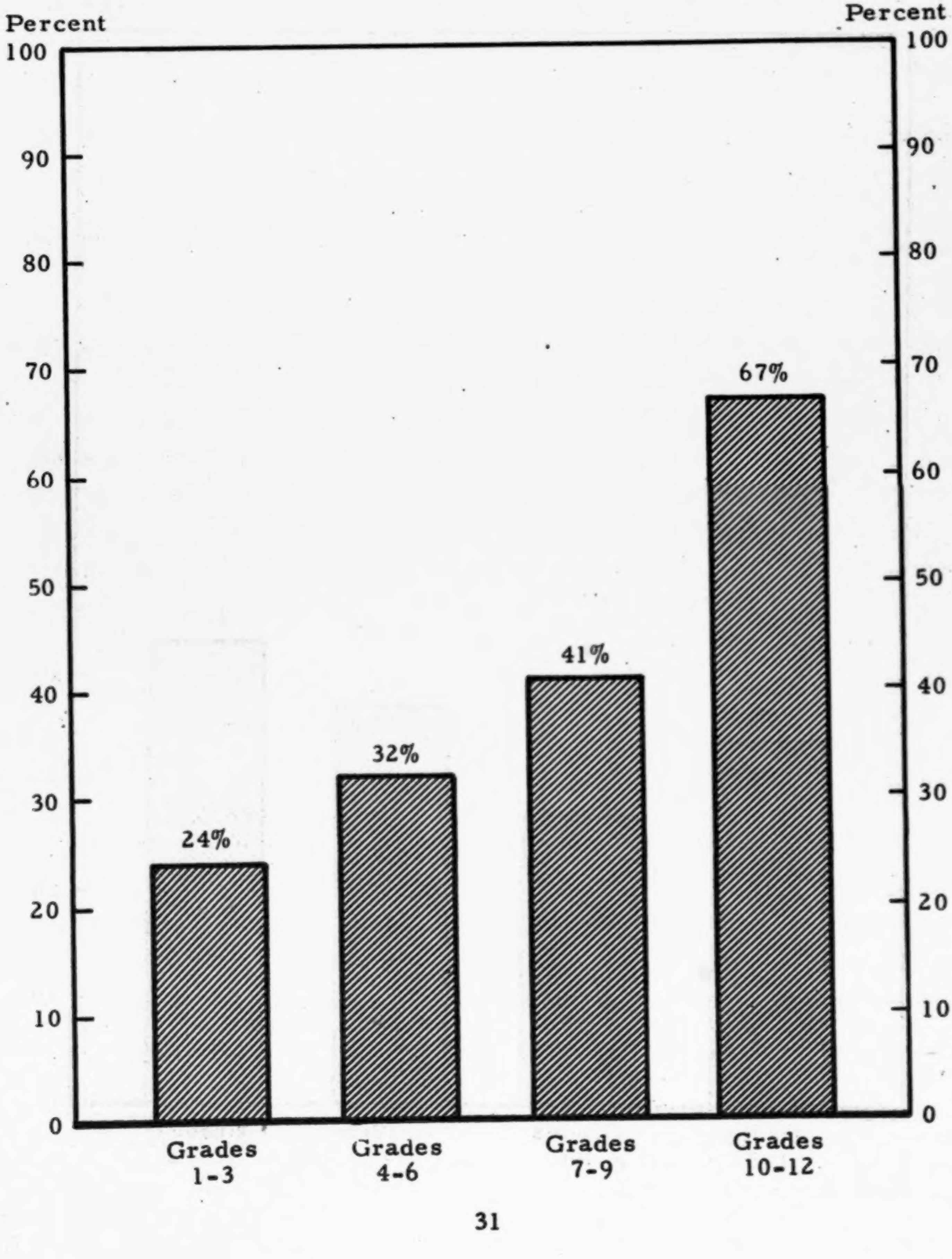
[1] Percentile norms used were not uniform.

[2] There was no way of determining what selection factors prevailed in the inclusion of data for these groups in the reports. Thus, the data reported in the exhibits are illustrative and are not representative of the States or the Nation.

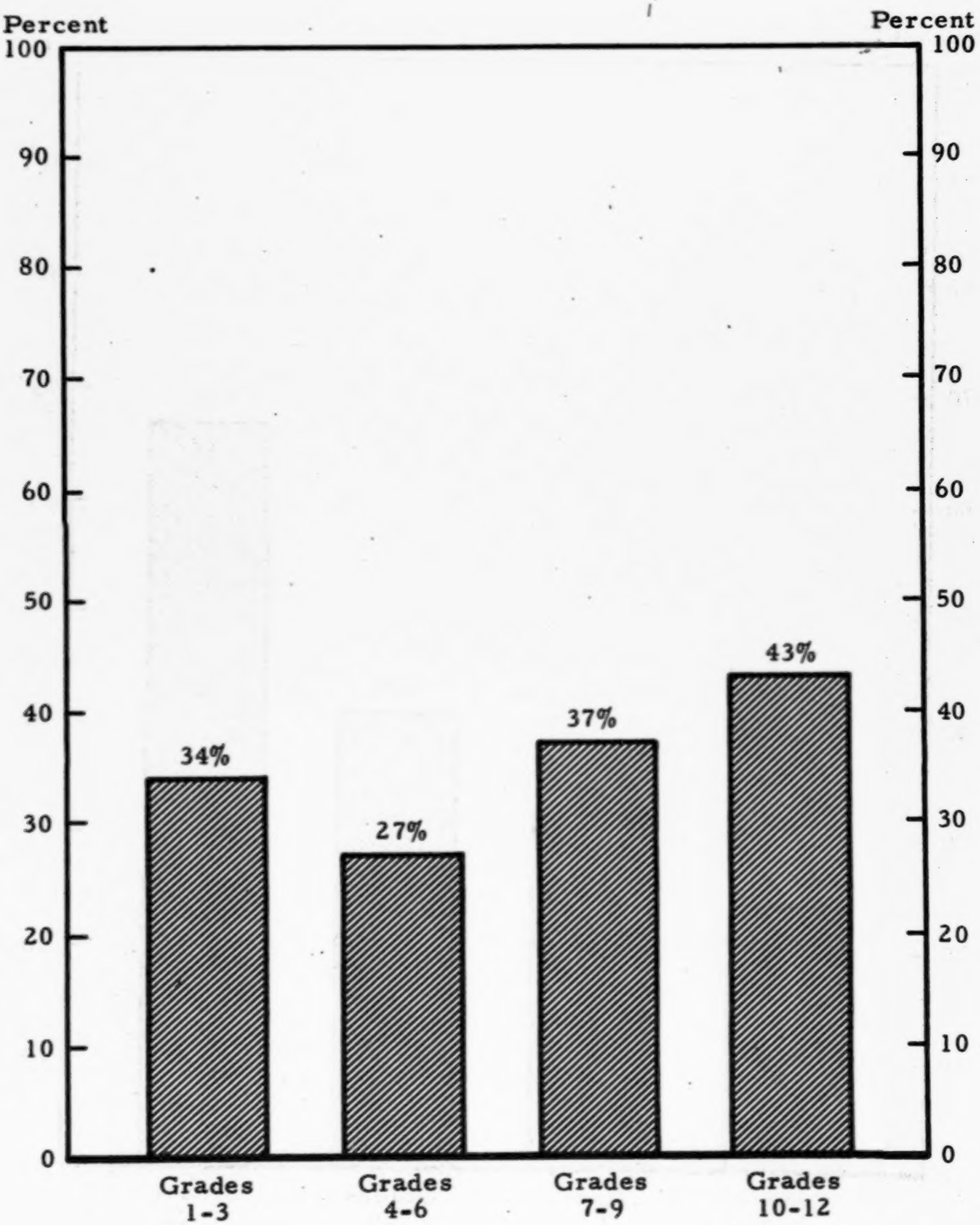
TWO-THIRDS OF CHILDREN SCORE IN LOWEST QUARTILE IN GRADES 10-12 (ARITHMETIC)

Exhibit II-1. Percent of Children Whose Arithmetic Test Scores Fell on or Below the 25th Percentile, by Grade Span



GREATER PERCENT OF CHILDREN SCORE IN LOWEST QUARTILE IN SECONDARY GRADES (READING)

Exhibit II-2. Percent of Children Whose Reading Test Scores Fell on or Below the 25th Percentile, by Grade Span



Dropout Rates

Dropout rate is often considered a measure of the attitudes of children toward school or of the school's ability to prove attractive enough to hold potential dropouts. States were asked to report dropout rates by grade level in schools having Title I programs and in non-Title I schools.[1] Usable data were analyzed to compare dropout rates for Title I and non-Title I schools. A count was made by State of the number of times the reported 1965-66 dropout rate in Title I schools was greater than, less than, or equal to that of non-Title I schools. The results, expressed in percentages of States supplying usable data, are shown in Exhibit II-3 for grade levels 7 through 12.

Within each grade level, the Title I school dropout rates reported were strikingly greater than those for non-Title I schools.[2] A similar analysis covering two previous school years showed the same results.

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[1] The States also reported on attendance rates and the percent of students continuing some type of education after high school. While extensive analyses of these data were made, the incompleteness of the reports, lack of compatibility among the reports, and the relatively short duration of projects combined to make inclusion of these data inadvisable.

[2] Frequently, there was no way of judging how much of a State was represented by its report. States with a relatively high number of disadvantaged Title I schools contributed no more to the counts than those with a relatively low number.

Exhibit II-3. Comparison of 1965-66 Dropout Rate in Title I and Non-Title I Schools

	Percent of States in Which:			
Grade Level	Title I School Dropout Rate Less Than Other Schools	Title I School Dropout Rate Greater Than Other Schools	Title I School Dropout Rate Equal to Other Schools	Number of States(1)
12	21	79	0	14
11	14	86	0	14
10	36	64	0	14
9	14	86	0	14
8	23	77	0	13
7	17	75	8	12

Note: (1) The same States are not necessarily represented at each grade level.

B. Objectives and Approaches

States were asked to group the most representative project activities by major project objectives--for example, to improve children's reading skills, to improve their chances of remaining in school, or to improve language. In addition, they were asked to list the most common approaches used by the local school districts to achieve these objectives. Thirty-two of the reporting States submitted information on the five most common approaches used to reach project objectives.

The objectives tended to fall within the 12 major areas previously used to group pupil needs. Of the 60 separate project approaches identified throughout the reports, Exhibit II-4 shows, by major classifications, those most frequently reported.

Exhibit II-4. Most Commonly Reported Approaches Used to Reach Project Objectives

Project Objectives	Commonly Reported Approaches
Reading	Aides and other subprofessionals
	Teacher/staff training
	Specialized personnel
	Reading and remedial reading
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Academic Achievement	Aides and other subprofessionals
	Reduce class size/additional teacher time
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Other Communication Skills	Aides and other subprofessionals
	Reduce class size/additional teacher time
	Teacher/staff training
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Instruction/Curriculum	Initiate/improve/expand academic programs
	Aides and other subprofessionals
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Attitudes and Behavior	Specialized personnel
	Pupil personnel services
	Initiate/improve/expand academic programs
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Administration/Teaching/Other	Teacher/staff training
	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
	Aides and other subprofessionals
Equipment/Facilities	Equipment, facilities, and supplies
	Special equipment, materials, and books

Exhibit II-4. (Continued)

Health and Welfare	Provision for physical needs Equipment, facilities, and supplies Health education
Programs for Handicapped Children	Specialized personnel Initiate/improve/expand academic programs Equipment, facilities, and supplies
Preschool/Kindergarten	Aides and other subprofessionals Teacher/staff training Equipment, facilities, and supplies Preschool programs
Summer Programs	Aides and other subprofessionals Initiate/improve/expand academic programs Summer school/summer camp
Library Development	Equipment, facilities, and supplies Aides and other subprofessionals Library services

For over 80 percent of the 12 major objectives reported, the following approaches were used:

- Providing aides and other subprofessionals as well as equipment, facilities, and supplies (11 objectives).
- Adding specialized personnel, offering special teacher and staff training, and initiating, improving, and expanding academic programs (10 objectives).

C. Evaluation Methods

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act requires annual evaluation of the effectiveness of Title I programs in meeting the special educational needs of disadvantaged children. This requirement led school systems everywhere to focus greater attention on objectives, measures, tests, criteria, evaluation design, and data collection.

Evaluation design varied according to the type of project or activity, the availability of evaluation personnel and materials, and other factors. One of the methods most frequently reported by the States was the "one-group, pre/posttest" design. In this design, the progress of children in Title I schools is measured over a stated interval of time and is then compared with previously established norms formed at the local, State, or national level. It should be noted that evaluations of Title I projects covered periods that averaged only about 4 months.

Less frequently reported was the "two-group" design, in which the rate of progress of one group (e.g., children in Title I schools) is compared with the progress of another group (e.g., children in non-Title I schools). The time factor places the same limitations on data as in the one-group design.

Many States commented extensively on evaluation efforts, particularly emphasizing the need for caution about expectations and results from this first year of Title I program operations. A thoughtful analysis by the State Education Department of New York typified the feeling of many States. Excerpts are given here:

> The accomplishments of the first year should be viewed against the haste of inception, the lack of adequate staff, and the fact that most programs ran for only a short summer session....
>
> In the area of evaluation, the same forces resulted in the approval of evaluation plans that superficially met the requirements, rather than an insistence on evaluation plans that would provide meaningful results. Moreover, evaluation is the last step and the most likely place to bear the brunt of the shortage of personnel and errors of budgeting. In other words, neither the results nor the evaluation of results could be expected to be at a satisfactory level.
>
> Moreover, the plans seemed to expect measurable results from relatively minute activities, such as training during a summer school. Title I probably should have been recognized as an operating procedure, a new kind of long-term treatment that would be part of the ongoing school program rather than a detached experimental list of projects. The results can only be measured over a period of years and can only be properly measured by observing the changes in individual pupils as a result of the new treatments rather than an immediate academic spurt by those in a project. The tests used were too broad and the learning time too short to produce significant results. In many cases, the anticipated results should be a limited number of dramatic changes in averages. For this type of analysis, longitudinal, or case record, reports are needed over a period of years.

D. State Reports of Progress

Since standardized tests are not the only measure of change--especially among disadvantaged children--the States were asked to submit both objective and subjective judgments about the success of their programs for each major project type (for example, reading programs).

States were asked to summarize the number of projects that showed substantial progress, some progress, or little or no progress for each of five grade levels: preschool/kindergarten, and grades 1-3, 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12. Although States were not called upon to describe their criteria for differentiating among the three progress rankings, a few States did so. Reported criteria ranged from rigorous requirement for statistically significant average gains measured by objective tests to considering that a project had made substantial progress simply if it became operational. Thus, the data do not necessarily reflect specific or carefully determined increases in educational attainment. (See Appendix A, Exhibits A-1 through A-6.) However, the information does suggest that:

- The largest percentage of most successful programs was reported at the preschool/kindergarten level. There was a considerable drop at the grade 1-3 level. (The fact that evaluation at the preschool/kindergarten level is usually subjective in nature may have contributed to the high incidence of "substantial" progress reported.)
- The reported success of projects diminished as the grade level increased.
- At all grade levels, the "supportive services" appeared more successful than purely "instructional" programs.

Identifying the Most Effective Projects

States were asked to submit information on five effective projects for each of three grade ranges and to treat each of the five population categories (see Appendix C, page 127) within each of these grade ranges separately. (A State which supplied all requested information would have cited a total of 75 project activities.) In addition, States were asked to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each of the project activities cited.

For kindergarten through grade 3, grades 4-6, and grades 7-12, 43, 43, and 45 States, respectively, submitted at least partial information. In organizing and presenting the massive quantities of resulting data, it was decided to retain all project activities mentioned.[1]

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[1] If a State listed more than five activities as "most effective" for any of the 75 reporting categories, only the first five activities were retained.

One problem involved in analysis of the data on "most effective projects" was that some States listed very specific project activities serving a particular small group of children, whereas others cited major project areas serving hundreds of children. Thus, one State may have cited statewide reading programs while another cited a unique reading project in a specific school.

To obtain a national picture of effective projects for each of the three grade levels, data for the five population categories were pooled. Exhibit II-5 reports both frequency of projects cited and percentage of States citing projects.

Health projects were cited by 70 percent of the reporting States as effective for children in the early school years; reading projects were cited by 70 percent of the States for the middle and upper school years. Other activities cited by at least 35 percent of the reporting States as among their most effective projects were:

Early Years	Middle Years	Upper Years
Health	Reading/Language	Reading/Language
Reading/Language	Health	Counseling
Preschool/Kindergarten	Cultural Experience	Non-Academic Programs
Cultural Experiences	Counseling	Health
Instructional Methods	Non-Academic Programs	Cultural Experiences
Counseling/Pupil Personnel	Library Development	Library Development

The States also supplied a considerable amount of information which describes these programs and their effectiveness in another way. These are the comments made about and by the people most directly involved in Title I last year--the children and their teachers. A variety of sources were used to gather the observations which follow, including the State Evaluation Reports, but more particularly the "end of the year" reports submitted by the local districts. Examples follow on page 42.

TITLE I HEALTH PROJECTS BEST MET CHILDREN'S NEEDS IN LOWER GRADES, READING PROJECTS IN HIGHER GRADES

Exhibit II-5. Number and Percent(1) of SEAs Reporting Most Effective Project Areas, by Grade Span

	Grades					
	K-3		4-6		7-12	
Project Area	Number of SEAs	Percent of SEAs(2)	Number of SEAs	Percent of SEAs(2)	Number of SEAs	Percent of SEAs(3)
Reading/Language	26	60	30	70	31	69
Health	30	70	23	53	21	47
Preschool/ Kindergarten	23	53	-	-	-	-
Cultural Experiences	20	47	20	47	20	44
Instructional Methods	17	40	14	33	14	31
Counseling/Pupil Personnel	15	35	17	40	26	58
Non-Academic Programs	13	30	17	40	22	49
Increasing Staff	13	30	14	33	10	22
Academic Programs	12	28	11	26	14	31
Library Development	9	23	16	37	17	38
Programs for Handicapped	9	23	12	28	4	9
Teacher/Staff Training	8	19	11	26	9	20
Increasing Equipment	5	12	8	19	7	16
Mathematics	4	9	10	23	10	22
Summer Programs	3	7	6	14	10	22
Behavior and Attitudes	4	9	3	7	6	13

Notes: (1) Numbers and percents are not additive, since each SEA reported from 1 to 25 projects for each grade level, depnding on the number of projects it cited for each of its five population classifications.
(2) Based on 43 SEAs reporting.
(3) Based on 45 SEAs reporting.

[The program]gave local teachers and administrators an opportunity to use imagination in solving problems which have been prevalent in education for many years....It "shocked" us from our snug little world of conservative actions into the reality of our modern times. [A Missouri school system]

The outstanding feature and accomplishment of [this Ohio district] Title I program was the change in attitude of the children involved. Children who previously had great dislike for anything connected with school openly admitted enjoying the program. Many parents remarked that for the first time they had no difficulty getting children out of bed in the morning, that children were up and ready to go before the bus came....

Students who couldn't read above a second grade level increased their level of reading as much as four grade levels. A freshman in high school could only read pre-primer level material. At the end of the summer program he had advanced to the third grade level and had a constant comprehension of 85 percent and better. This is the first time many of the students could say they were up to their grade level of reading. [A North Dakota school system]

The teacher aides were also well utilized in this small rural [Nevada] district where most teachers teach multiple class situations....

Perhaps the most outstanding feature [of this Arizona project] has been the change in the attitude of the Mexican-American population. Where, prior to this program, they never became involved in school activities, they now participate actively. Last term over 200 of them attended night classes here at the school. They participated in advisory committee activities and in the P.T.A....

Parents comments included such statements as, "I don't know why, but my children enjoyed going to school. I had no trouble getting them up in the morning." "My child never expressed an interest in reading before, but already he is talking about the four library books he just completed." [An upper New York State community]

[An] after school study program and summer program brought the children and their parents closer to the school and the teachers. In the past these students and parents were pretty much left out or pushed aside. The elementary principal reported, "The parents of many of

> these students have expressed their appreciation for the individual help and attention the school gave them last summer." The teachers of the regular classrooms have noticed the improved work and attitude of our deprived students.... [An Oklahoma school]
>
> Our school health program, which involved a school nurse, was a big success. It is difficult to put into words the success of the program. We had a great need for such a service as we do not have an MD in [this Iowa] district....
>
> The lunch program was one of the most successful accomplishments of [this] entire [Arkansas] project. Approximately 300 deprived students were served hot lunches with milk every day. For the majority of these children this was the only hot meal they received....

Project Strengths and Weaknesses

For each project cited as among the most effective, States were also asked to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of critical procedural aspects such as facilities, materials, equipment, personnel qualifications and training, schedule, organization, and evaluation.[1]

In all, about 75 strengths and 58 problems or weaknesses were specifically mentioned. Each project strength was cited more often than the various weaknesses. Improvement and provision of materials, equipment, and facilities, and improvement of pupil attitudes toward self and community were the two strengths most commonly associated with the major project areas that appeared most frequently throughout the reports.

Reports of the health and the reading/language project areas--the only projects reported by nearly 70 percent of the States as being most effective for at least one grade level grouping--demonstrated the greatest variety of strengths and weaknesses.

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[1] See Appendix C, page 117.

Some Test Results

Educators have traditionally included achievement test scores in their evaluation programs. With the understanding that the interpretation of test results presents many hazards, particularly in dealing with educationally disadvantaged children, the States were asked to "submit a compilation of objective measurements of educational attainment for programs funded under Title I."[1] Few were able to present test data which included all the following information:

- Number of children tested
- Name of test (and subtest, if appropriate)
- Mean pretest score
- Mean posttest score
- Time interval between pretesting and posttesting

Forty States presented incomplete test data and eleven presented none. Reasons given included:

- There was not enough uniformity in the objective tests to justify a compilation.
- Posttesting was not attempted because the State was committed to obtain only baseline data in fiscal year 1966.
- Test data could not be compiled.
- There was no statewide testing program.
- Appropriate measuring instruments were not available.

Test results from standardized reading and arithmetic achievement tests from which a mean change score in grade equivalent could be computed are presented in Exhibit II-6. Only test groups containing 50 or more children are included. The pre/posttest intervals are based on a 10-month school year in order to make them directly comparable with mean change scores, which are reported in grade equivalents.

Of the 19 groups represented in Exhibit II-6, 10 show mean change scores which are greater than the pre/post time interval; 9 show mean change scores which are less than the pre/post interval. In the 12

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[1] See Appendix C, page 116.

EXAMPLES OF ACHIEVEMENT

Exhibit II-6. Change in Scores by Achievement Tests for Selected Groups

Test(1)	Grade Span	Number of Children	Pre/Post-test Interval(2)	Change in Grade Equivalent(2)
Reading Vocabulary	1-3	125	.29	.30
Reading Comprehension	1-3	105	.29	.20
Reading Test	1-3	52	.10	-.10
Word Recognition	1-6	167	.11	.13
Sentence Meaning	1-6	156	.12	.05
Paragraph Meaning	1-6	129	.14	.17
Reading Survey	1-12	136	.30	.55
Reading Survey	1-12	928	.30	.24
Word Meaning	4-6	59	.22	.20
Paragraph Meaning	4-6	59	.22	.15
Word Meaning	1-6	52	.20	.02
Paragraph Meaning	1-6	53	.20	.01
Arithmetic	1-3	75	.10	.60
Arithmetic	1-3	100	.10	.60
Arithmetic	4-6	107	.10	.00
Arithmetic	4-6	99	.10	.30
Arithmetic	1-3	56	.65	1.30
Arithmetic Reasoning	1-3	125	.29	.48
Arithmetic Fundamentals	1-3	108	.29	1.69

Notes: (1) The tests included are those most frequently reported by SEAs.
(2) Pre/posttest interval based on 10-month school year. Thus, a pre/post interval of .10 year represents an interval of 1 calendar month.

reading test groups, 4 showed mean grade-equivalent score gains greater than the pre/post interval and 8 showed less. In the 7 arithmetic test groups, 6 showed gains greater than the pre/post interval.

Since many unknown factors doubtless operated to influence the 19 groups represented in the exhibit, it is not possible to draw firm conclusions or make strong generalizations about improved academic achievement resulting from Title I programs. Exhibit II-6 does, however, illustrate one type of evaluation used.

> "substantial improvement"
>
> In the short time that ESEA Title I projects were in operation, students tended to achieve a month's growth for every month of instruction--a substantial increase over the .7 of a month growth for every month of instruction they had been averaging before the program started.
>
> The month-for-month growth was based on objective test data and was demonstrated in the majority of the districts which operated the reading program for at least 4 months. This does not mean that students enrolled in ESEA Title I reading programs reached the achievement norm of their grade level after a few months of special instruction. It does mean that they stopped falling behind. This in itself can be considered substantial improvement.[1]

E. Assistance to the Handicapped

Public Law 89-313

States were asked to supply data on projects funded under Public Law 89-313, which amended Public Law 89-10 to provide for special assistance to children in State-supported schools for the handicapped. Eleven States submitted information on the most pressing needs of these children.

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[1] From the California report, analyzing results of the California Achievement Test, a widely adopted and accepted test of reading and language achievement.

Of the States reporting on their most effective projects funded under Public Law 89-313, two listed reading and language at the kindergarten-grade 3 level. In this same grade span, four other project categories mentioned as being most effective by one State each were cultural experiences, instructional methods, non-academic programs, and parent and community programs. At the grade 4-6 level, three project areas mentioned as most effective were instructional methods, non-academic programs, and reading and language. Only one project area--behavior and attitude improvement--was listed at the grade 7-12 level. At unspecified grade levels, five projects noted as most effective were cultural enrichment, increase in equipment, teacher/staff training, programs for the handicapped, and development of instructional materials.

Several States indicated future plans for aiding additional children under Public Law 89-313.

Public Law 89-10, Title I

Forty-nine States used Title I funds to assist handicapped children in the local schools. Projects aimed at helping these children were, among others:

- Projects in special schools and classes for handicapped children.
- Special programs in schools and special classes for the physically handicapped.
- Training and inservice programs for special class teachers.
- Additional staff for special classes.
- Hiring additional specialists, therapists, and technicians.
- Purchasing equipment and special supplies.
- Construction of additional facilities.
- Workshop programs for the deaf in mathematics and reading.
- Specialized instruction programs.
- Implementation of sensory development centers.
- Educational programs in State hospitals for the mentally retarded.

- Speech therapy centers.
- Programs for children with behavior and adjustment problems.
- Inservice training programs for specialized personnel.

III. STATE AND LOCAL OPERATIONS

A. State Administration and Organization

Title I set the stage for a new era of leadership by SEAs. Suddenly and dramatically, the States were called upon by Title I to allocate $1 billion to their local school systems, to lend a hand in planning and developing thousands of new educational programs, to review and approve them, and to evaluate their effectiveness. How they exercised their leadership in assisting LEAs to meet the call of Title I is outlined in this section.

1. State Operations and Services

Although time limitations made it impossible for SEA personnel to visit each school with Title I projects, the SEAs felt it imperative to establish early, direct communication with LEAs to insure adherence to the special criteria established in the legislation. All but two of the 54 SEA reports mentioned State services to local school districts. The SEAs planned conferences, meetings, and workshops to explain to local educators the ramifications of the new law and what it entailed for the school systems eligible for the additional Federal assistance.

The Washington State Office of Public Instruction, for example, used a statewide two-way, amplified telephone conversation for one of its conferences. Pennsylvania conducted more than 100 regional conferences. Maryland, foreseeing a heavy demand on the financial accounting resources of the LEAs, contracted with an accounting agency to help LEAs prepare for the new program.

The State reports showed that direct SEA assistance was concentrated in the area of project applications and evaluation. As just one illustration, the South Carolina Title I staff met with each of 108 school districts to review procedures for submitting project applications and held over 300 office conferences. As a consequence, it was able to approve all projects and avoid the misunderstandings and delays that might have resulted from temporary disapprovals.

Another important area of assistance was curriculum and educational program development. Among the States commenting in detail on this service, New Jersey and Florida cited practices proving particularly successful.

In New Jersey, teams of four members, each with a different specialty, were deployed to every county to assist in the planning, development, and operation of projects. Florida reported that education generalists worked with local districts "to make certain that Title I projects are focused toward the needs of educationally disadvantaged children and that these projects are, in a very real sense, integral parts of the LEAs' ongoing educational program, and not something that operates on the fringe." When the need arose, the generalists called in specialists from the State department.

Thirty-eight States reported visits and consultation by SEA personnel; forty-four held workshops and conferences; eighteen issued written and oral communications. They utilized these methods to provide the following types of assistance:

Areas of Assistance	Number of States
General planning and drafting of applications	27
Evaluation	20
Explanation of Title I objectives	16
Fiscal and administrative matters	11
Operation of projects	9
Training of personnel	5

2. Interrelationships of the Titles of ESEA

The five titles of ESEA were planned and developed to serve as a coordinated program. Title I would provide a massive, comprehensive State-administered program for educationally disadvantaged children. Title II would provide additional library materials. Title III would provide supplementary centers and services. Title IV would provide educational research in the problem areas of the educational enterprise. Title V would strengthen the capacity of State departments of education to provide leadership in the entire process. The architects of the legislation hoped that ESEA would become a powerful vehicle for change in schools throughout the Nation.

The 54 State reports indicate that the most prevalent interrelationships existed between Titles I and II, which most States reported using in a mutually reinforcing manner. There were many instances of interaction between Titles I and III but relatively few of coordinated planning. The State reports reveal little interaction between Titles I and IV. Because of its special significance with regard to State operations, the relationship of Title V to Title I is presented first. The frequency of Title I relationships reported with all titles is shown in Exhibit III-1.

MOST DIRECT RELATIONSHIP OCCURRED WITH TITLE II, LEAST WITH TITLE IV

Exhibit III-1. Interrelationship of Title I with Other Titles of ESEA

Interrelationship with Title I	Number of States(1)			
	Title II	Title III	Title IV	Title V
Direct relationship	45	7	4	36
Indirect relationship	2	21	-	-
No interrelationship reported	5	24	45	14
No response to question	2	2	5	4

Note: (1) Based on 54 reporting SEAs.

Title I and Title V

Since Title I is a State-administered program, its implementation led to expansion of State Education Department staffs and services with Title V funds. Many States established field service staffs. Curriculum specialists were in many cases added to the permanent State staffs to provide advice to LEAs. Some States increased their technical assistance capability by hiring consultants and their evaluation capability by adding testing services and hiring evaluation experts. The need for fiscal accounting in several instances led to the establishment of data processing systems supported with Title V funds. Title V funds in some States were used for inservice training programs and workshops for Title I personnel.

An example of the scope of Title V assistance is illustrated by the following quotation from the Nebraska report:

> Title V funds have been used by the State Agency to strengthen its leadership capacity. In this respect, the SEA has funded new positions in the area of preschool, social work, research, and finance, which improve the ability to promote the intent and purposes of Title I apart from the direct application funding procedure.
>
> Provisions which will be added under Title V with which to supplement Title I are consultants in the following areas: social studies, elementary education, English and language arts, health and physical education, and educational television. The educational television consultant will be hired specifically to plan and develop programs to benefit the educationally deprived student. The consultants in the other areas will be used to assist local school personnel in assessing needs of children, in designing projects to alleviate the needs of the educationally deprived and in reviewing activities funded under Title I as they relate to their special area.

The 36 States reporting direct Title I-Title V relationships listed the following activities: hiring State Title I staff (22); adding curriculum staff (11); testing, evaluation, and data processing services (11); inservice training for Title I personnel (5).

The Wisconsin report states that "new positions were created with Title V funds in areas of preschool education, social work research, and finance which will improve the capability and programs in Title I."

In addition, "new finance positions relating to audit procedures and requirements under Title I were created," and "Title V data processing capabilities related to Title I audit, evaluation, application and approval will benefit all education programs in the State." Indiana school systems sponsored workshops under Title I and Title V for preschool teachers in target areas, and in West Virginia Title V money was used to create an Office of Research which assisted the planning and evaluation of all Title I projects.

New York State implemented several Title V programs bearing on activities under Title I. Its office of Urban Education Project seeks to identify the problems of urban education and devise ways of relating the resources of the State Department of Education to these problems. State Department personnel work closely with school and municipal leaders. A final phase will involve actual implementation of new ideas. "The educational problems of Title I children," the State reported, "are herein being carefully considered in a manner predicated upon thoughtfully planned procedures rather than in the present manner of providing expedient stop-gap measures whose value seems at times questionable."

Title I and Title II

The close coordination between these two titles, reported by 47 States, reflected the prevalence of reading and language arts programs under Title I. Many of the Title II materials purchased were used in such academic areas as reading, math and science.

While Title II funds were paying for materials, Title I money augmented library programs by making it possible to add librarians and library aides to the staff, 21 States reported. Eleven State agencies said that Title I funds were used to construct or remodel library facilities that could house new materials acquired through Title II. In implementing its Title II program, South Carolina gave top priority in its distribution of Title II materials to children from low-income families and schools with the greatest State library standard deficiencies. The entire State Title II plan was written and administered, the State reported, "to enable the State to operate Title I and Title II as integral aspects of the same program with regard to library materials and textbooks. Title I funds are used to construct and equip libraries in these schools, [and] Title II funds are used in those schools... having a major deficiency in library acquisitions."

In Texas, Title II resources and special books were available to Title I projects and students during special summer and after-school programs, and instructional media centers established under Title II were available and "of great benefit to Title I instructional projects," the State report noted. "Source guides" were developed with West Virginia Title II funds to help local teachers and administrators select suitable materials for Title I schools.

The New York State Evaluation Report cited 70 school library projects under Title I that were cooperatively funded under Title II:

> When Title II grants were utilized in target areas, it was necessary when warranted to complement Title II activities and services with personnel and equipment funded under Title I, ESEA. Librarians were employed with Title I funds and, in many cases, funds for remodeling existing facilities or renting quarters to house the library resources were granted. This funding also included mobile libraries.
>
> To supplement Title I projects, Title II funds were used to add library materials and in many cases to inaugurate classroom and/or school libraries. Title II funds were allocated to equip instructional resource centers including audio-visual materials, periodicals and books, to be used in conjunction with curricula, both academic and non-academic, being implemented under Title I.

Illustrations of how Title II materials were used to complement Title I reading programs were found in the Illinois report. Title I and Title II funds were used in approximately 45 percent of Title I projects, State officials reported:

> The overwhelming majority of these funds were expended on supplementary library materials, uniquely geared to the interest and abilities of the disadvantaged or to supplement inadequate basic libraries in target schools. It is worthy to note that the titles were used relatedly in a large proportion of smaller school projects, wherein the Title I educational loan may well have been limited.

Title I and Title III

The interrelationships between Title I and Title III were limited for several reasons: many school districts, especially the smaller ones, did not submit proposals under Title III; Title III proposals usually were not specifically written to meet the needs of the Title I population; during fiscal year 1966 most Title III projects were still in the planning stage; and many States reported that differing application procedures discouraged development of interrelated programs.

Even so, there were instances of interrelationship between Titles I and III. These instances for the most part, however, were not based on joint planning.

Title I in one Idaho community paid for subprofessionals, while both titles helped support a student learning center. The inclusion of the aides to supervise the study hall freed teachers to work with the students in the special center. In the same State, both titles were also used in a cooperative teaching project, with Title I supporting the inservice training for all teachers.

In Colorado, the use of Title I funds for transportation made it possible to launch interdistrict cooperative Title III projects. Title I materials were used extensively in a number of Title III summer programs. In the same State, Title I provided the money to screen children in low-income areas so needy students could take advantage of a Title III reading service center.

Title III funds in West Virginia were used to establish regional centers serving the needs of several counties; the centers offered specialized services to small school systems which could not offer such services under Title I. A Title III educational service center served a number of New Mexico Title I schools with guidance, speech, reading, curriculum, research, and computer services.

Title I and Title IV

Only four State reports demonstrated broad interrelationship between Title I and Title IV. The development of Title IV Regional Laboratories occurred after most Title I programs were well under way.

Missouri reported that the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, in conjunction with four large cities, planned to develop a pilot project--the community service school. This school would operate on the concept that the problems of the educationally disadvantaged are not confined to the classroom but are inseparably related to the child's overall environment. It would "provide a whole range of services and activities related to the remediation of educational deficiencies and improvement of learning skills among students and adults."

Michigan used Title IV funds to conduct conferences on evaluation for the benefit of Title I teachers.

Problems of Interrelationships as Reported by States

Some of the major obstacles to coordinating the five titles of ESEA, as reported by 21 States, were:

- Lack of personnel. In many States a limited staff was called upon to implement and manage numerous programs. Their first priority was to initiate these programs, and under these conditions coordination was sometimes necessarily neglected.
- Lack of planning time.
- Timing of funding. The school planning cycle begins in the spring when money is budgeted for expenditure the following fall. The fiscal year 1966 ESEA funds were not appropriated until late September. The States reported that this time differential made coordination almost impossible.
- Lack of consistency in the approval procedures among titles. A few LEAs said that programs rejected under one title were subsequently approved under another. Moreover, development of interdependent projects, especially those involving

Titles I and III, was inhibited by the possibility that one part of a coordinated proposal might be approved but another part disapproved.

- Lack of awareness at the LEA level of the need for interrelationship among the titles. Some States noted that certain library materials purchased under Title II proved to be incompatible with Title I programs.
- Inadequate LEA participation in Titles III and IV. Some States reported that LEAs did not submit Title III projects because they lacked the expertise to mount effective ones. Several States reported that LEAs failed to see the relevance of Title IV activities to their own problems.

Suggestions from the State Reports

The major administrative suggestion made by the States called for the incorporation of all titles under one approval agency. Many States recommended that the application forms of Titles I and II be combined, thus minimizing paperwork. Some speculated that perhaps giving approval authority over Title I and Title III projects to the same agency would stimulate greater interrelationship between the two programs.

Finally, many States felt that Title IV funds should be more clearly related to the needs of the Title I program and that more research should be sponsored in the field of the disadvantaged. Specifically, in view of the overwhelming number of programs involving reading and language arts, they suggested broader research in the areas of communication, perception, and thinking.

3. State Assistance in Evaluation

In Title I, for the first time in the history of Federal grant-in-aid programs for education, evaluation was mandated as a condition for participation.

Section 205(a)(5) of Public Law 89-10 directs SEAs to insure that "effective procedures, including provision for appropriate objective measurements of educational achievement, will be adopted for evaluating at least annually the effectiveness of the programs in meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children...." Reports of these evaluations must be submitted to the Commissioner of Education under Section 206(a)(3), which states that "the State Educational Agency will make to the Commissioner...periodic reports (including the results of objective measurements required by Section 205(a)(5))...."

Most school systems of moderate size and most education departments of universities have conducted curriculum and program evaluation for many years. Nevertheless, for most of the educational community, the Title I evaluation requirement presented a new and difficult task.

The States' general difficulties were well illustrated in the report from Connecticut, which said in part:

> Most school personnel do not have background experiences in evaluation procedures of the scope required for sophisticated Title I evaluation procedures. For the most part, school efforts have been directed toward determining the progress individuals have made in school subjects. Demands for needs analyses, determination of objectives based on needs, activity descriptions, group data, evaluation instruments related to levels of design, and evaluation in terms of changes found in Title I youth are measurement procedures uncommon to most school personnel.

One State identified a further difficulty. After noting that, traditionally, educators "had not in the past been required by outside agencies to establish a formal research design that would lend itself to statistical analysis at the conclusion of the project," it reported that it was faced with an early backlog of unapproved projects that threatened to hinder the Title I program for the majority of 250,000 eligible pupils.

The U.S. Office of Education recognized that "tooling up" for evaluation would present considerable difficulty to SEAs, LEAs, and the Office itself. With the advice and concurrence of the various State educational agencies, the Office therefore developed a reporting form which was adopted by most States and, after modification, was forwarded to the LEAs as a guide for their evaluation efforts (see Appendix C).

The SEAs launched programs of evaluation assistance to LEAs, the most commonly reported method being the development and dissemination of guides, instructions, and evaluation reporting forms. New Hampshire, for example, developed a workbook that "would be of benefit to educators working with Title I projects to assist them in selecting effective instruments for evaluation as well as methods of evaluation." Initial documents were later revised as the needs in evaluation were further clarified and defined. A number of SEAs developed their evaluation guidelines earlier than the Office of Education and revised them as they learned of Federal needs in the evaluation effort.

In order to meet the many difficulties in developing and implementing effective evaluation plans, most SEAs encouraged--and in some cases sponsored--workshops, seminars, conferences, and university courses dealing with evaluation and its relationship to Title I programs. Many SEAs encouraged members of their own staffs and representatives of LEAs to attend workshops conducted by private research and evaluation organizations. Universities offered special courses in evaluation to Title I personnel at the request of LEAs and SEAs.

SEA staff personnel also played a key role in interpreting, designing, and implementing programs with a built-in evaluation strategy. A total of 621 consultants or consulting groups were used by SEAs in providing assistance to LEAs; these ranged from one consultant in one State to 21 in another. The total number of SEA personnel offering similar assistance was 413 in 49 states, with a range from 1 to 14 and an average of 7 to a State.

Telephone calls, letters, memoranda, and publications were the most widely used methods of providing evaluation assistance to LEAs. Regional and local meetings also were frequently used for this prupose. A number of States reported holding a series of one- or two-day meetings with follow-up meetings on a regular basis for LEA and project personnel.

An important (but infrequently reported) type of evaluation assistance was the processing of achievement, attitude, and aptitude test results for the LEA by the SEA. A few SEAs reported assistance to LEAs in determining appropriate tests and test forms to be used and the appropriate time to administer the measures.

4. Information Dissemination

Dissemination of ideas and information was described as vital in many State reports, in view of the need to keep teachers, administrators, and the community informed and involved and of the particular need to spread ideas for new, effective curricula and techniques for educating the disadvantaged.

State and local methods of dissemination (present or planned) reported by SEAs are summarized as follows:

Methods	Number[1] of SEAs Reporting Use	
	At SEA Level	At LEA Level
Reports, brochures, pamphlets	34	38
Mass media publications	32	30
Meetings, conferences, speeches, etc.	21	35
Consultants (or exchange of personnel by LEAs)	10	17
Inservice training	8	6
TV, radio, films, slides, etc.	8	16

---

[1] Details represent the number of SEAs mentioning some form of the methods. Four SEAs provided no information on SEA methods; eight provided none on LEA methods.

SEAs, serving as clearinghouses of Title I information, distributed news releases and articles, State correspondence and mailings, and local pamphlets and brochures. Most SEAs also said they had distributed, or planned to distribute, publications describing types of Title I programs--both ineffective and outstanding--that had been developed.

The Kansas SEA published a booklet entitled "Information Concerning Projects under P. L. 89-10, Title I," which was distributed to all LEAs and other interested parties and which included a resume of a cross-section of Kansas projects.

Many SEAs used various forms of direct communication to bring information to their LEAs. One SEA said that it "has depended largely upon workshops and consultative visits" and that "these were supplemented by suggestions made by consultants to local school officials through letter, telephone conversations, and office conferences."

LEAs used similar means to communicate with teachers, administrators, and parents (e.g., through P.T.A.'s) about Title I programs and practices. The use of person-to-person methods, such as conferences, speeches, and home visits, was reported more widely by LEAs than by SEAs. In North Dakota, some schools exchanged proposals and sent teachers to visit neighboring projects. Several LEAs allowed their coordinators to assist other districts with their Title I projects.

Some States sponsored inservice training and workshops conducted at colleges and universities. Employing consultants and specialists to disseminate information was a widespread practice. For example, West Virginia reported that:

> Regional Title I curriculum specialists are analyzing programs...with special attention to innovative and promising practices. These specialists have the opportunity to carry, from one county system to another, information on successful programs as well as the practices that have not been successful and need to be modified or discontinued.

For the most part, local dissemination of information was restricted to an explanation of legal requirements, procedures needed to initiate Title I programs, evaluation methods, and other preparations necessary to submit Title I projects. As one respondent explained:

> Since money was made available so late in the year... local districts had difficulty planning and implementing projects without having to concern themselves with providing information to other schools. The projects have not been in operation long enough to provide information worth disseminating.

Michigan, while reporting that more than 90 percent of its 497 responding LEAs disseminated data or information to other school districts, went on to note:

> Although the variety of methods of dissemination appears extensive, the percentage of local education agencies that disseminated data and shared information other than by informal discussions and news releases is small. The lack of preparation and exchange of brochures, films, and tapes between local agencies is a regrettable condition, but understandable when consideration is given to the factor of time and of heavy demands made upon teaching personnel, especially Title I teachers. More specific direction and encouragement of such activity should be included in future guidance to local agencies.

5. Participation of Nonpublic School Children

Congress specifically provided in the ESEA that nonpublic school children are to participate in Title I programs. The law stipulates that educationally deprived children residing in project areas, whether they attend public or nonpublic schools, are eligible for services provided under Title I.

Many arrangements for providing services to nonpublic school children are permissible under Federal regulations, e.g., dual enrollment, shared services, and participation by nonpublic school children in activities on public school grounds. Equipment purchased under Title I may be placed in nonpublic schools on a temporary basis for use in project activities. However, several State constitutions and statutes forbid one or more of these arrangements.

State laws and existing legal interpretations of those laws are sufficiently restrictive in at least eight States to seriously limit nonpublic participation. One State, for example, permits only dual enrollment. Another prohibits dual enrollment and the establishment of special classes by public school officials in nonpublic schools (although it allows public school officials to provide special services such as guidance in nonpublic schools).

Several States have also ruled against using public funds to transport children from a nonpublic school to a project in a public school. In a number of States, participation of nonpublic school children would not have been possible if the attorney general had not ruled that restrictive State laws and court decisions did not apply to the use of Federal funds.

Procedures to Encourage Participation of Nonpublic School Children (Exhibit III-2)

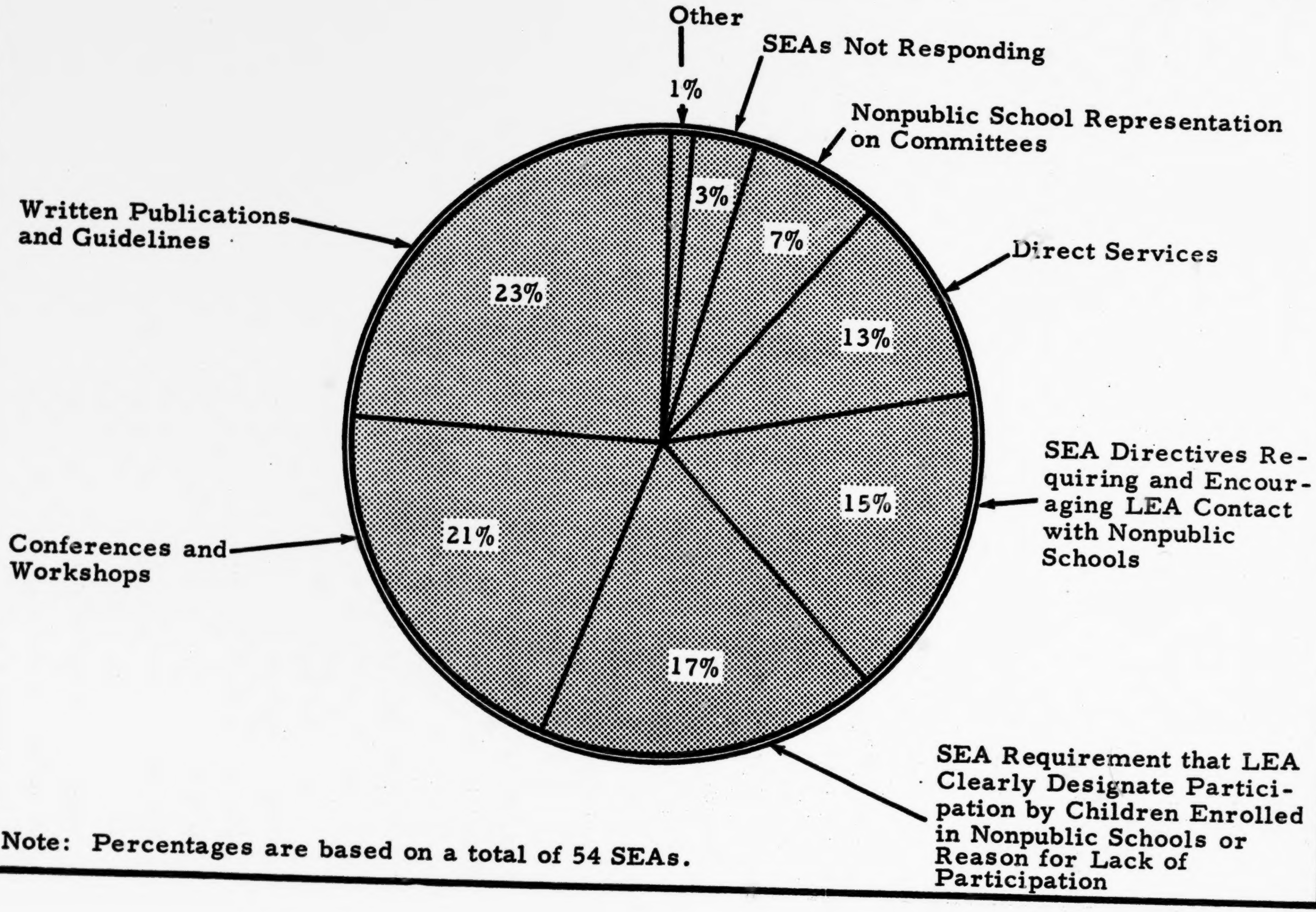
States encouraged nonpublic participation most frequently through publications and guidelines. Thirteen States cited the circulation of publications describing the types of services LEAs could provide for nonpublic school children. Eight States reported that their guidelines required LEAs to contact nonpublic school authorities when planning programs. Other SEAs mailed information on Title I--rules, regulations, approvable activities, and services--to both public and nonpublic authorities.

In three instances, SEAs arranged joint conferences devoted specifically to the techniques of joint program planning by public and nonpublic school officials. Several cities also arranged conferences for public and nonpublic school representatives. The purposes of these conferences ranged from disseminating basic Title I information to actual program planning.

A number of SEAs required that LEAs clearly designate in their Title I application forms the nonpublic school activities they proposed (or the reason for lack of such provision) and cited this as an important procedure for insuring participation by nonpublic school children. Six States required statements from nonpublic school officials that they had foreknowledge of the program and opportunity to participate; seven required a description of the efforts taken to coordinate projects with nonpublic authorities. In Montana and Pennsylvania, for instance, a letter from a nonpublic school official concerning project participation was made a basic requirement for project approval.

WRITTEN GUIDELINES AND CONFERENCES MOST PREVALENT STEPS TAKEN BY SEAs TO ENCOURAGE PARTICIPATION BY NONPUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN

Exhibit III-2. Steps Taken by SEAs to Encourage Participation of Nonpublic School Children in Title I Programs



Note: Percentages are based on a total of 54 SEAs.

Sixteen SEA's said they had strongly urged LEA administrators through conversations, memoranda, or correspondence to provide adequate services to nonpublic school students. Field visits were conducted by five States to assist LEAs in the development of projects involving nonpublic school children and to insure that the LEAs were fulfilling their responsibilities in that area. A number of States said that through informal conversations they were able to suggest suitable project arrangements for nonpublic school children.

Some States (for example, California) have included nonpublic school representatives on State advisory committees and have encouraged LEAs to include nonpublic school representatives on their Title I program development committees. Colorado, in reporting that only 4 of 184 LEAs encountered any difficulty whatsoever in providing services to nonpublic school children, related:

> In May, 1965, Colorado held its initial meeting to discuss the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. At that time we charged both public and nonpublic schools with their responsibilities of working together to ensure successful operations under Title I.
>
> A State Advisory Committee was formed which included representatives from the nonpublic schools. This committee frankly discussed the situation and set up channels for further discussion of ways of communicating and cooperation. Our approval of projects required the inclusion of evidence of real contacts and the effects of working together. We did not accept statements that merely said nonpublic school [children] are or will be invited to participate. We checked to see if in fact these programs were arrived at cooperatively or that the programs were in fact meeting some of the needs of nonpublic school [children].... [Some] nonpublic schools set up committees and appointed persons who were responsible for working with the public schools and have diligently functioned to see that programs have worked for both school systems....
>
> Our State has had no serious problems regarding this matter. Once the guidelines were set up and understood, both sides went to work to improve the educational opportunities for the educationally deprived students.

Extent of Participation of Nonpublic School Children

The SEA reports indicated that 526,600 (or approximately 6 percent) of the total children participating in Title I were enrolled in nonpublic schools. Exhibit III-3 designates the reported frequency, location, and scheduling of projects for nonpublic school children. Projects involving nonpublic school children were reported as taking place most often on public school grounds and during the regular school day and/or summertime.

Participation of Nonpublic School Children: Successes and Difficulties

One-fourth of the State responses referred to successful cooperative program planning and implementation. Twelve SEAs mentioned joint planning of Title I projects by public and nonpublic school officials. Kansas, for example, reported that "the cooperation between public and nonpublic schools, with very few exceptions, has been excellent during the planning period of Title I projects. Representatives from both schools meet regularly, working together to plan a project to meet the most important needs of the community." Ten SEAs reported favorably on joint project implementation by public and nonpublic school authorities (see Exhibit III-4).

Rhode Island praised the relationships that evolved during both the planning and implementation stages. "Public school officials," it said, "have enthusiastically described this relationship as 'excellent,' 'outstanding,' 'positive and enthusiastic,' 'most cooperative'.... Only one community reported any problems whatsoever in implementing" projects with public and nonpublic school participation. Florida

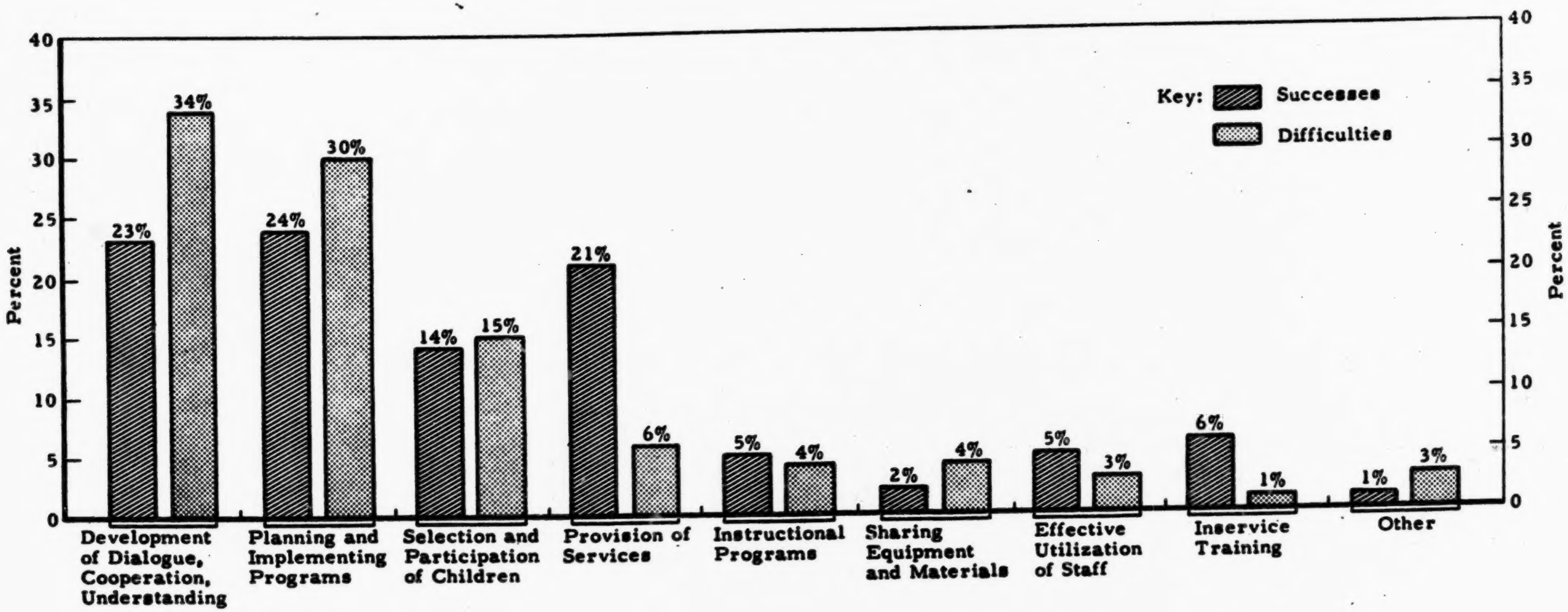
NONPUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN PARTICIPATED MOST OFTEN IN SUMMER PROGRAMS ON PUBLIC SCHOOL GROUNDS

Exhibit III-3. Projects Involving Nonpublic School Children by Location and Schedule

Schedule	On Public School Grounds Only		On Nonpublic School Grounds Only		On Both Public and Nonpublic School Grounds		On Other Than Public or Nonpublic School Grounds	
	Projects	SEAs Reporting	Projects	SEAs Reporting	Projects	SEAs Reporting	Projects	SEAs Reporting
Regular School Day	1,542	34	504	27	245	20	111	18
Before School Day	26	12	9	4	8	4	5	4
After School	271	27	47	10	28	9	26	12
Weekend	117	19	19	6	14	7	17	9
Summer	2,098	36	94	17	149	16	154	19
Combination	1,488	13	229	7	306	6	154	8
Other	42	7	2	2	-	-	4	4

PROVISION OF SERVICES AND INSERVICE TRAINING SHOW GREATEST DEGREE OF SUCCESS (RELATIVE TO DIFFICULTIES) IN PROGRAMS FOR NONPUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN

Exhibit III-4. Percent of Reported Successes and Difficulties in Developing and Implementing Projects Involving Children Enrolled in Nonpublic Schools, by Type of Activity



reported that, "in light of the fact that a dialogue between the two groups had not existed in a consistently cooperative manner prior to the implementation of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, LEAs have accomplished much toward opening channels of communication."

The evaluation reports of the big cities indicated similar success. Several cities emphasized the importance of establishing communications with private school administrators prior to project implementation. Two city reports stated that the majority of nonpublic school parents responded positively to the cooperation between the two school systems and wanted continuation of the program.

One-fifth of the successes reported by SEAs fell into the category of provision of special services to nonpublic school children. Services mentioned most often were either auxiliary benefits (health, guidance, food, and transportation) or the sharing of equipment and materials. California's statement is typical: "The most successful activities were those which federal regulations allowed to be implemented on nonpublic school facilities. These were auxiliary services...where the ESEA Title I teachers traveled to the nonpublic school for a specified time each day or week."

Many LEAs loaned reading equipment and mobile educational equipment to nonpublic schools for use by educationally deprived children. A few cities considered the broadcasting of educational television programs and the sharing of curriculum materials to be useful arrangements.

Inevitably, along with success there were difficulties too. While some SEAs described efforts to develop dialogue, cooperation, and understanding between public and nonpublic school officials as highly successful, others considered them their greatest problem areas.

Misconceptions as to the rules, regulations, and intent of Title I constituted the most conspicuous difficulties. Ten States reported that nonpublic school officials sometimes were not fully acquainted with the categorical nature of Title I, the requirements on ownership and use of equipment, and the assignment of legal responsibility for program administration. Some nonpublic school authorities declined to participate in Title I--for the most part objecting on grounds of separation of church and State or opposition to the concept of Federal aid. Six SEAs reported lack of cooperation among administrative personnel.

The big cities reported fewer, but similar, communication problems. Public school officials sometimes complained of inadequate academic, personal, or attendance records on nonpublic students. In some cases, nonpublic school officials reputedly did not convince parents, staff, or children of the merits of the program. Lack of proper information about programs and objectives on the part of Title I staff presented additional difficulties.

Planning and implementing projects for nonpublic school children presented difficulties for a number of LEAs. One SEA stated: "In a few instances it has been rather difficult to get public school officials to actively involve nonpublic school officials in the planning stage rather than to inform them what has been done after much of the planning has been completed." Sixteen States reported difficulties in scheduling Title I activities; seven cited the distance between schools as a major problem. Seven also referred to the problems inherent in designing projects that would adequately meet the differing needs of nonpublic and public school students.

A number of States explained the difficulties of providing services to nonpublic school children who resided in target areas but attended nonpublic schools located outside the target area. Two SEAs reported that the nonpublic school students residing in target areas were sometimes not educationally deprived.

Certain States experienced two or more common difficulties. For instance, of the 27 States which reported difficulties in the category of determining relative needs of nonpublic school children and coordinating and planning programs for them, 14 also experienced difficulties in the category of selection and eligibility of students. The total pattern of responses indicates that many States experienced compound problems in providing services to nonpublic school children. A number of the problems appear to be a result of the newness of the program and are expected by the States to diminish during the second year.

Recommendations

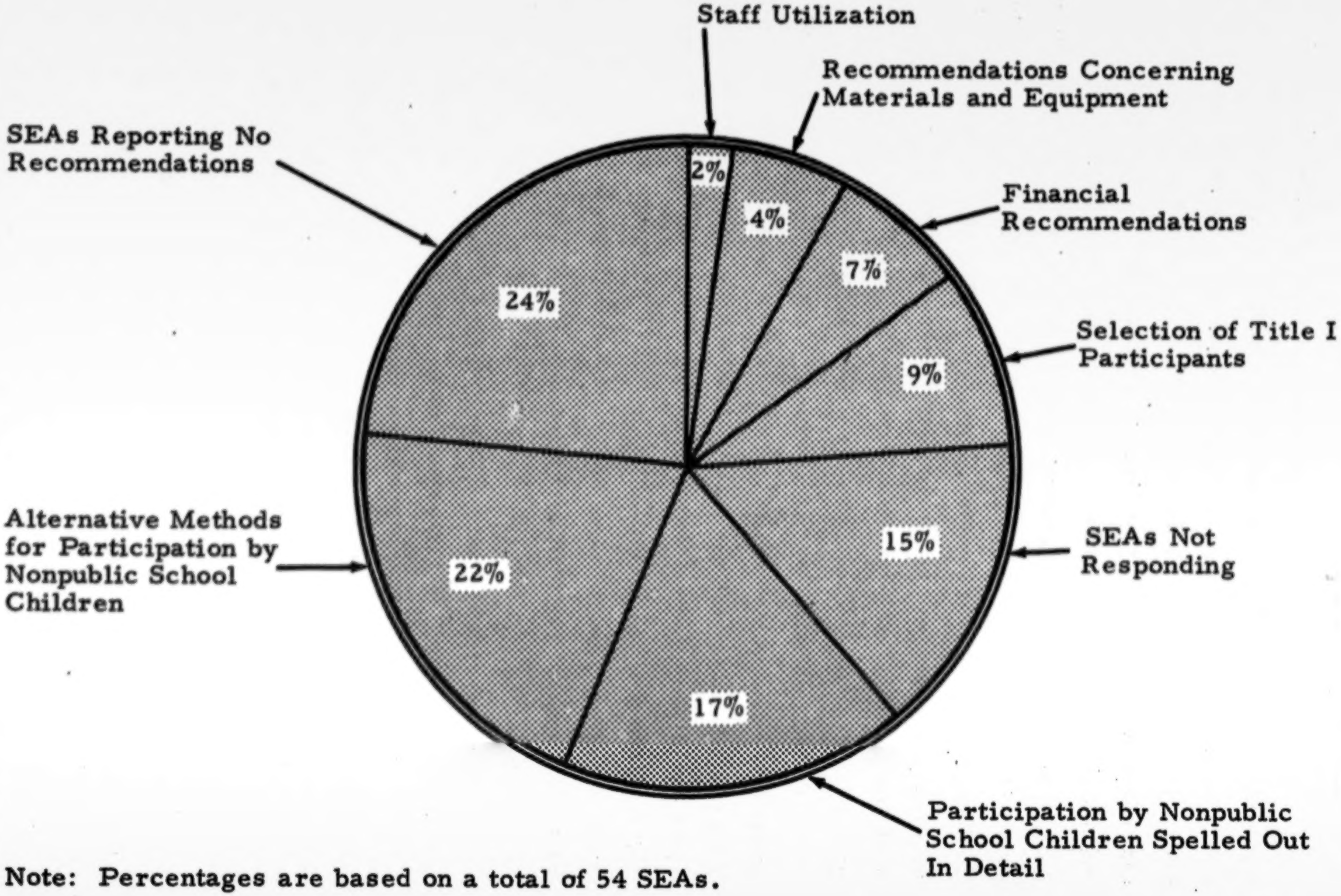
Thirty-three States submitted recommendations to improve present legislation governing participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs. Nine urged that appropriate arrangements for including educationally deprived children enrolled in nonpublic schools be further clarified in the law and guidelines. More than a third of the recommendations related to the way in which nonpublic school children should participate in Title I programs. Three SEAs recommended direct grants to nonpublic schools, or, as Rhode Island stated: "Remove the back door approach to nonpublic school participation in Title I." Another SEA suggested that nonpublic school authorities work directly with the SEA; yet another proposed separate and distinct legislation for public and nonpublic children (see Exhibit III-5).

California stated: "There should be some provision to allow nonpublic school children in poverty areas to participate in Title I programs even though the public school district chooses not to apply for its entitlement." Two States declared that it should be mandatory for nonpublic school administrators to furnish public school officials with the names, addresses, and special educational needs of eligible nonpublic school children. The big city reports more or less reinforced the State reports in the above areas.

Also received were recommendations to improve the procedures for nonpublic pupil selection and participation: (1) the number of nonpublic children eligible to participate in Title I programs should be established on a percentage basis; and (2) educationally deprived children attending nonpublic schools outside target areas should be able to participate in Title I projects in their own schools.

ABOUT 60 PERCENT OF THE SEAs RECOMMENDED REVISIONS IN THE LEGISLATION REGARDING PARTICIPATION OF CHILDREN ENROLLED IN NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS

Exhibit III-5. SEA and LEA Recommendations for Revising Title I Legislation Regarding Participation of Children Enrolled in Nonpublic Schools



Note: Percentages are based on a total of 54 SEAs.

B. Local Programs

Reports from local educational agencies told of many successes and frustrations, the need for cooperative planning, big city operations, and hundreds of creative new approaches to educating children of poverty.

1. Cooperative Projects

Title I encouraged the development of cooperative projects among two or more school districts. Forty-two States reported such projects, with mixed results, as shown below:

	Number of SEAs Reporting	
Area	Successes	Difficulties
Joint planning	17	22
Sharing personnel and resources	22	18
Allocation of funds and fiscal accounting procedures	11	8
Communication and interaction among school and communities	8	27
Other	14	2

One obstacle to cooperative programs was sheer distance between schools. In some cases, parents were unwilling to transport their children to a project in another school district. Kansas, for example, reported: "Some cooperative projects involved large areas of land. The distance from one attendance center to another attendance center was several miles, thus requiring considerable travel for either teachers or students to commute."

Another obstacle was reported by Michigan: "Small districts feared the loss of local autonomy and the implied threat of annexation. To these small districts, provincialism, the fear of losing identity... could prevent the realization of a successful cooperative project."

On the other hand, 17 States reported success in joint planning and operation of projects by their LEAs. One reported that such joint efforts produced more concentrated services. Tennessee, along with seven other States, said joint ventures among school districts gave many small districts a chance to pool resources with larger districts to provide inservice education.

North Carolina was one of ten States reporting the sharing of specialists as one benefit of cooperative programs.

2. Coordination with Community Action Agencies

Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 provided for the establishment of community action agencies to assist the citizens of urban and rural communities in mobilizing their individual, group, and local resources to combat poverty. Recognizing that these community action activities were closely related to the programs being conducted under Title I and also that duplication of effort might occur, Congress directed the LEA to develop its Title I program in cooperation with the community action agency serving its area. Figures reported by 46 responding States show that projects totaling over $570 million in Title I funds were approved for projects in local school districts where CAAs existed.

The SEA reports indicate that two kinds of efforts--one informal and the other formal--were made at the State level to insure coordination between CAAs and LEAs. The first encouraged interrelationship through conferences and liaison between the State Technical Assistance Agency and the SEA. State personnel also met with local CAAs and LEAs to foster cooperation. Thirty-six States employed this technique. The formal effort involved a review procedure that developed from the use of OE Form 4305-2, "Statement by Community Action Agency on Project to be Funded under Title I." Thirty-two States reported they had followed this procedure. In some States, the two State agencies exchanged local project applications for general review pruposes.

At the local level, it was reported, CAAs frequently provided strong liaison between home, school, and community and kept educators posted on the needs of the community and on the public reaction to Title I. Thirteen States reported improved communication and cooperation in interagency planning by CAAs and LEAs. Nineteen SEAs reported general success with coordination efforts and nine others with joint financing and operation of projects. Joint financing was cited by 32 SEAs as the most significant factor in reinforcing relations between

LEAs and CAAs. This arrangement not only eliminated duplication of effort, they said, but also facilitated pooling of financial resources and more efficient use of supervisory and specialist talent.

Seven States reported that the sharing of personnel, equipment, and facilities reinforced relations between LEAs and CAAs. Where LEAs and CAAs divided responsibility for separate sectors of education programs (such as activities both within the school and outside it), both efforts were strengthened, according to six State reports. Eight States noted that CAA assistance in recruiting teacher aides and in testing was of great service to LEA programs.

Difficulties Encountered

Many States reported that the concept of community participation in the development of educational programs required adjustments on the part of LEAs. They reported that the legislative language and the initial Office of Education guidelines calling for coordination and cooperation between CAAs and LEAs failed to clearly outline the respective roles, responsibilities, and prerogatives of CAAs and LEAs. They also provided no format for resolving differences of opinion. California noted that "clear responsibilities of the Economic Opportunity Act and ESEA Title I for funding various programs in target areas were not definite."

Joint planning of educational programs by educators and noneducators occasionally encountered difficulty because of a feeling among some local educators that CAA participation in developing projects constituted an interference. SEAs said this feeling produced reluctance on the part of some LEAs to involve the CAAs in preliminary plans and discussions. Some SEAs reported that CAAs lacked the qualifications and knowledge necessary for the development of educational projects and that their suggestions regarding curriculum, type of project, and hiring of personnel were often in conflict with established educational policies and regulations and had to be rejected. Many States observed that a common misconception among both LEAs and CAAs was that the CAA could exercise veto power over the proposed Title I project.

Other difficulties in adjustment were said to have been caused by a difference between Office of Economic Opportunity and Office of Education definitions of eligibility, by absence of provisions for reciprocal review of CAA programs by LEAs, and by delays in scheduling review of Title I projects by CAA officials.

Suggestions for Improved Coordination

Several suggestions for administrative changes to facilitate CAA/LEA cooperation were included in the State reports:

- In order to focus properly on needs, LEA and CAA projects should be planned simultaneously.
- CAA proposals which complement Title I projects should receive priority in the approval procedure of the Office of Economic Opportunity.
- Joint LEA/CAA workshops and training programs should be conducted.

Twenty-seven SEAs also requested legislative change to clarify areas of responsibility and/or to place all related educational programs under one agency. Fifteen SEAs suggested that legislative language be altered to remove any implication of CAA control over educational programs for the disadvantaged.

3. The Big Cities

Big cities faced special problems, largely because of the size and complexity involved in the undertaking of Title I programs. The magnitude of the assignment is indicated by the fact that Title I programs in 32 of the Nation's largest school systems involved some 1.5 million children--nearly 18 percent of the total Title I population. The 25,000 new elementary and secondary teaching positions in Title I programs in these 32 cities represent the total teaching staff for a school system the size of Chicago.

Faced with setting in motion huge programs in a short time, cities often had to make far-reaching administrative and organizational readjustments. Many reports mentioned two problems directly connected with such major change:

- Prompt State approval of Title I programs was necessary for success, but lack of prompt action adversely affected many programs at the local level.
- Apprehension about future Federal funding apparently caused some cities to integrate Title I programs into their educational systems only on a short-term basis. This uncertainty was, in fact, cited as a major factor affecting both administrative and educational decisions. Cities repeatedly commented on the need for assurance of Federal commitment to continue programs once started.

The big city LEAs served more children than any other single type of school system. Exhibit III-6 shows the number of children reported by type of enrollment and grade level.

Exhibit III-6. Number of Pupils Participating in Title I Projects in 32 Big Cities, by Grade Span and Type of Enrollment

	Enrollment			
Grade Span	Total	Public	Nonpublic	Not Enrolled
All Grades	1,481,800	1,300,200	159,500	22,100
Preschool/ Kindergarten	128,200	112,100	11,100	5,000
Grades 1-3	440,700	395,100	45,400	200
Grades 4-6	448,900	399,800	49,000	100
Grades 7-9	276,100	237,300	34,800	4,000
Grades 10-12	187,900	155,900	19,200	12,800

The reports of the big cities reflected the diversity of the needs of disadvantaged children. Fourteen cities identified and ranked 58 "most pressing needs." Exhibit III-7 categorizes the major areas of need reported by the 14 cities and shows the number of cities identifying them.

Exhibit III-7. Most Pressing Areas of Needs as Reported by 14 Big Cities

Areas of Needs	Number of Cities Reporting
Health	11
Attitudes and behavior	9
Communication and language skills	8
Reading	7
Academic achievement and performance	7
Staff development	6
Enrichment	6
Instruction and curriculum	3
Home-school involvement	2
Library	2
School facilities	2
Handicapped	1
Equipment and materials	1

As Exhibit III-7 indicates, health was the area of need most frequently mentioned. However, health services were ranked first by only one city. Reading, on the other hand, which was the fourth most frequently mentioned, was ranked first as the area of most pressing need by four cities. Staff expansion was also a major requirement reported by the big cities.

4. Creativity and Diversity

Many reports stated that Title I gave local educators a unique opportunity to solve the particular problems of their own youth--in this sense, every project design was unique. New Hampshire State education officials also noted that:

> [The] purpose of this mammoth [Title I] undertaking was not to see how many establishments could obtain educational excellence. It was a unique opportunity for the educators and citizens of a particular community to look at themselves, reflect on their resources, assess the needs of the youth they are responsible for, and to determine how they could help the neediest of their children. To be sure, one school system's efforts were another's traditions, and it would be unfair to draw comparisons. Some of the children in each community have improved themselves, and this is the significant purpose of Title I.

Several State reports pointed out that some of the "novel" activities and services launched in their local districts might have been long accepted elsewhere but had never before been offered in these particular communities. Others spoke of having applied new methods to traditional activities, and some cited programs they presumed had never before been carried out anywhere.

Saturday morning reading centers, after-school study centers, summer music camps, and a conservation program in a 40-acre woodland bought by a local district are some examples of programs which enriched instruction with Title I funds. Special health services, the use of community resources to train boys in heavy construction skills, and programs that involved teaching English as a second language to foreign-born children were noted by the States to illustrate how their school districts were meeting the special needs of disadvantaged children.

The reports cited new ideas in teacher training, including the part-time addition of psychologists, social workers, therapists, and nurses to the instructional staff to help the classroom teacher become more effective in dealing with the disadvantaged. Finally, many reports mentioned the use of such special equipment as educational television, mobile classrooms, and dental and speech clinics.

The following subsections list a few of the hundreds of projects the States described.

Expanding and Enriching Instruction

SATURDAY MORNING READING CENTERS. Illinois youngsters in grades 7 through 11 were enabled to catch up with their essential reading by visiting these special centers. A wide variety of reading materials was available for all levels and interests.

AFTER-SCHOOL STUDY CENTERS. Children in New York City remained in school three afternoons a week for special remedial instruction. Tutors were on hand to help them with their homework, and the library was open for browsing.

COURSES BY MAIL. Too small to offer classes in art, higher mathematics, or mechanics, a Montana high school contracted with a State university for correspondence courses. This program was conducted under the close supervision and guidance of a regular faculty member from the school system.

LAND LABORATORY. Morning classes for 40 poorly motivated Michigan boys were conducted in a nearby 40-acre woodland classroom. The program emphasized basic academic skills and useful non-academic experiences. The boys built a road, constructed a large building for winter projects, and cleared brush and dead trees from the woodland. Nature trails were plotted out for younger students and trees and shrubbery tagged with identifying labels. In the spring the boys acted as guides, taking grade children on nature hikes. A retired lawyer helped the boys restore a neglected sawmill on the school property for future practical vocational training.

"CAMP QUEST." This classroom for Iowa youngsters was an abandoned quarry purchased by the school district and turned into a science camp. Students not only benefited from camping out, but got sound instruction in science from the natural resources available in the quarry area.

SUMMER MUSIC CAMP. Fifth and sixth grade deprived children, without any previous musical training, were able to read music after a 6-week music camp in Washington, D. C. Two concerts given by the youngsters demonstrated that they had gained the equivalent of 2 years of music training as offered in the regular public school program.

Meeting Special Needs

MORE EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS. In New York City, a "more effective schools" program attempted to meet individual needs early in the students' education. Special subject teachers and a clinical team of guidance counselors, social workers, a psychologist, and a part-time psychiatrist worked with small classes of pre-kindergarteners to insure individual attention for each child. At the same time, teachers were given intensive inservice training in team teaching and nongraded instruction.

HELP FOR THE DEAF. A Tennessee project for deaf children of primary school age experimented with wireless auditory training units, which replaced old, cumbersome, and inefficient wired units. The object was to capitalize on residual hearing, develop the children's command of language, and help them to speak.

READING FOR PLEASURE. A summer program gave an Alabama school district the opportunity to show disadvantaged students that reading can be fun. "Culturally deprived children," the State report commented, "had a new world open to them not only by learning to read, but by communicating and associating with others. They learned to look upon reading as recreation and pleasure. The center provided a pleasant place to go for those who ordinarily have nothing to do." The program involved six reading centers and ten teachers.

ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE. Because of the increasing enrollments of Cuban refugees and resident aliens from Central and South America, a Louisiana school system started special classes in English for Spanish-speaking students. One field trip was taken each week so that the youngsters could become acquainted with the culture of the United States and gain pride in their new country, while at the same time maintaining respect for their own heritage.

SUPPLYING BASIC NEEDS. One North Carolina LEA said that many of its poverty-stricken students "apparently had no other source of help" except the school. Children who were chronic absentees and in need of medical attention were provided necessary treatment.

In all, 26,700 hot lunches were served, 9,310 half-pints of milk were provided during the summer sessions, 207 homes were visited, and many children returned to school because of the work of home-school coordinators.

REDUCING ABSENTEEISM. Head-lice, scabies, impetigo, pinkeye, and several other communicable diseases account for a high rate of absences among Washington State migrant children. Two part-time nurses aides (one spoke Spanish) were employed to work with the school nurse in an intensive program built around home visits. Cooperating closely with the county health officer, the nursing staff treated children and instructed parents in preventive measures.

A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH. A Pennsylvania project attacked physical and educational deficiencies in a broad-scale program that provided psychological testing and assessment; expanded health services, including dental and medical care; nutritional services for elementary schools without food services; speech correction and therapy; developmental and remedial reading; and a sixth grade humanities program.

SPECIAL EDUCATION TEAM. A team of speech and hearing personnel, psychologists, social consultants, and an educational consultant tested and either completely or partially evaluated 799 mentally retarded and slow learners in one Louisiana community. After they had screened and identified over 1,000 speech and hearing problems among the disadvantaged youngsters, classes for mentally retarded students were started.

FUTURE FARMERS. The children in a project conducted in a farming community in Wisconsin, most of whom expected to remain in farming permanently, were assigned to care for livestock acquired from the Department of Agriculture. They provided shelter, maintained feeding schedules, supervised breeding, and in general assumed total responsibility for the animals.

HIGH SCHOOL FOR DROPOUTS. On two evenings a week from 6 to 10 pm, an Iowa school system offered nontuition courses in both academic and practical elective areas, so that dropouts could complete graduation requirements. Girls from the local Job Corps Center were among the students.

METROPOLITAN YOUTH EDUCATION CENTER. Dropouts and recent high school graduates with "no place to go" benefited particularly from a Colorado school center, according to the State report. Also included in the program were students who were failing in college and underemployed youth who had the ability to move up but who were "stuck in the wrong job." Courses included basic education in English and math, instruction in social and cultural attitudes necessary for employment, vocational education, and a modified high school program for those who still needed a diploma. One staff member worked full-time to seek job placement for the students.

THE WORLD OF WORK. An Iowa program gave senior high school girls an opportunity to develop social and business skills that would help them make the transition from school to the world of work. Conducted during school and evening hours, the project included instruction in such basic matters as grooming, locating employment opportunities, and applying for a job. The project was coordinated with the State employment center and featured interviews with the State employment center and with local businessmen.

MEETING FAMILIES. In one Texas project, a liaison worker was assigned responsibility for obtaining information needed to evaluate the special needs of each student and his family and for gaining their confidence. During a 6-month program, the liaison officer visited some 82 homes serving, directly or indirectly, 146 children.

INSTRUCTING MOTHERS. An Arkansas project sponsored a cooking class to teach mothers of children from low-income families how to prepare more nutritious and well-balanced meals from the basic foods received as surplus commodities. Three cooking instructors held 2-hour classes once a week for 10 weeks.

Extending the World of Understanding

WIDENING WORLDS. Youngsters in one Oklahoma Title I project were all Cherokee Indians. They came from homes lacking modern conveniences and they had never traveled out of their immediate area. This project provided train trips to nearby metropolitan centers and field trips to the airport, zoo, art center, museums, and television stations. To motivate them to continue their education, special trips to the high school were planned.

CREATIVE ARTS CAMP. School officials turned an abandoned Connecticut seaside park into a summer arts and crafts center for 405 third through eighth graders. Other highlights included music practice and small drama production in the park's pavilion. Swimming was a daily activity.

LEARNING ABOUT OTHER LANDS. A cultural enrichment program in the Virgin Islands involved 2,000 children in a series of activities centered around music, art, literature, costumes, dance, language, and arts and crafts of foreign countries.

Tapping New Staff Sources

COLLEGE AIDES. A Pennsylvania community put college juniors and seniors to work as classroom aides. They assisted regular staff members by providing small group instruction in reading, and were especially helpful in encouraging failing secondary students to achieve passing grades and stay in school.

HIGH SCHOOL AIDES. Idaho high school students, assigned to a specific teacher for 1 hour a day, helped with clerical work, assisted on the playground at noon, and helped in correcting other students' papers, thereby freeing teachers' time for preparation and planning.

Training of Teachers

CHILDREN LEARN, TEACHERS OBSERVE. Two groups of West Virginia teachers were given a 2-week summer training course in teaching the disadvantaged. The classes, taught by 10 demonstration teachers, involved 250 disadvantaged elementary school children for 4 weeks.

WHOLESALE APPROACH. An Indiana project used the "wholesale approach" for the services of such specialists as psychologists, social workers, therapists, and nurses, none of whom were available in quantity in the district. The specialists gave intensive inservice training to regular classroom teachers, who in turn provided services to the disadvantaged children.

CONTINUING EDUCATION CENTER. One Florida school's project involved a coordinator and seven team leaders whose assignment was to help junior high school teachers achieve greater perception of their role in meeting the needs of disadvantaged children. This was accomplished through a special 6-week inservice training program at a Continuing Education Center. At the Center each teacher taught for one period and observed for one period. The teachers then spent the remainder of each day in discussion groups and lectures on method and content.

INDIVIDUAL ATTENTION FOR TEACHERS. A New Jersey school system set up an inservice program in which an expert teacher of reading gave individual instruction on the use of various visual aids, machines, and materials. According to the school system, this approach "quickened interest in using innovations and experimentation in teaching" and "helped immensely in improving our everyday classroom teaching of reading."

HUMAN RELATIONS. In a Kentucky city, a 2-week, tuition-free university workshop was conducted for 176 public and nonpublic school teachers, and a 2-day orientation session was held for new teachers from inner-city schools.

Coordinating for Better Instruction

COMMUNITY COORDINATION. A Washington, D. C., project coordinated the efforts of two school systems, eight community agencies, and four churches. Jointly developed by the public and nonpublic schools, the program provided classes and cultural and recreational activities for 250 elementary school children.

COMMUNITY CENTERS. In one Iowa project, four community centers were operated in coordination with the local Community Action Agency. The staff in each center worked under the direction of a school social worker and provided assistance both to children and to their parents.

COMBINING GRADES. Four one-teacher elementary schools in Vermont had numerous problems: each school had eight grades of 16-25 pupils; the teachers had to prepare 40 daily lesson plans; and no instruction was offered in music and art. Under Title I, each of the schools comprised only two grades. With combined classes, children were transported to newly organized centers. Part-time teachers in music and art were added, and an additional staff member assisted third through eighth graders in remedial reading. A new bus used for transporting pupils was also used extensively for field trips.

Using Special Equipment

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION. First and third grade teachers in one Alabama city used instructional television to teach number concepts from the "new math." The lessons, developed by a university authority, offered practical demonstration for teachers as well as instruction for students. The program was coordinated through periodic conferences and workshops, with mathematics consultants from the State Department of Education and representatives from the university developing the lessons.

MOBILE DENTAL UNIT. An Arkansas school system purchased a mobile dental unit equipped with two chairs and staffed by two dentists and a dental technician. The unit moved from school to school.

SPEECH CLINIC ON WHEELS. A Mississippi speech therapist used a mobile, air-conditioned, speech therapy unit containing all equipment needed to conduct an effective program.

MOVING CLASSROOMS. In one summer project in a rural South Dakota town, buses were converted into classrooms. A teacher drove the bus to the farms where the children were living and gave individual and small-group instruction in basic skills.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A contains supplemental information from the State Annual Evaluation Reports--exhibits on project effectiveness by grade level and a listing of major project areas with specific examples of activities. Appendix B consolidates data from other sources on entitlements and expenditures under Title I, staff positions, and number of children participating in summer programs. Appendix C presents the Office of Education guide for State annual evaluation reports.

APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS FROM STATE ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORTS

Exhibit A-1. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives: All Grade Levels

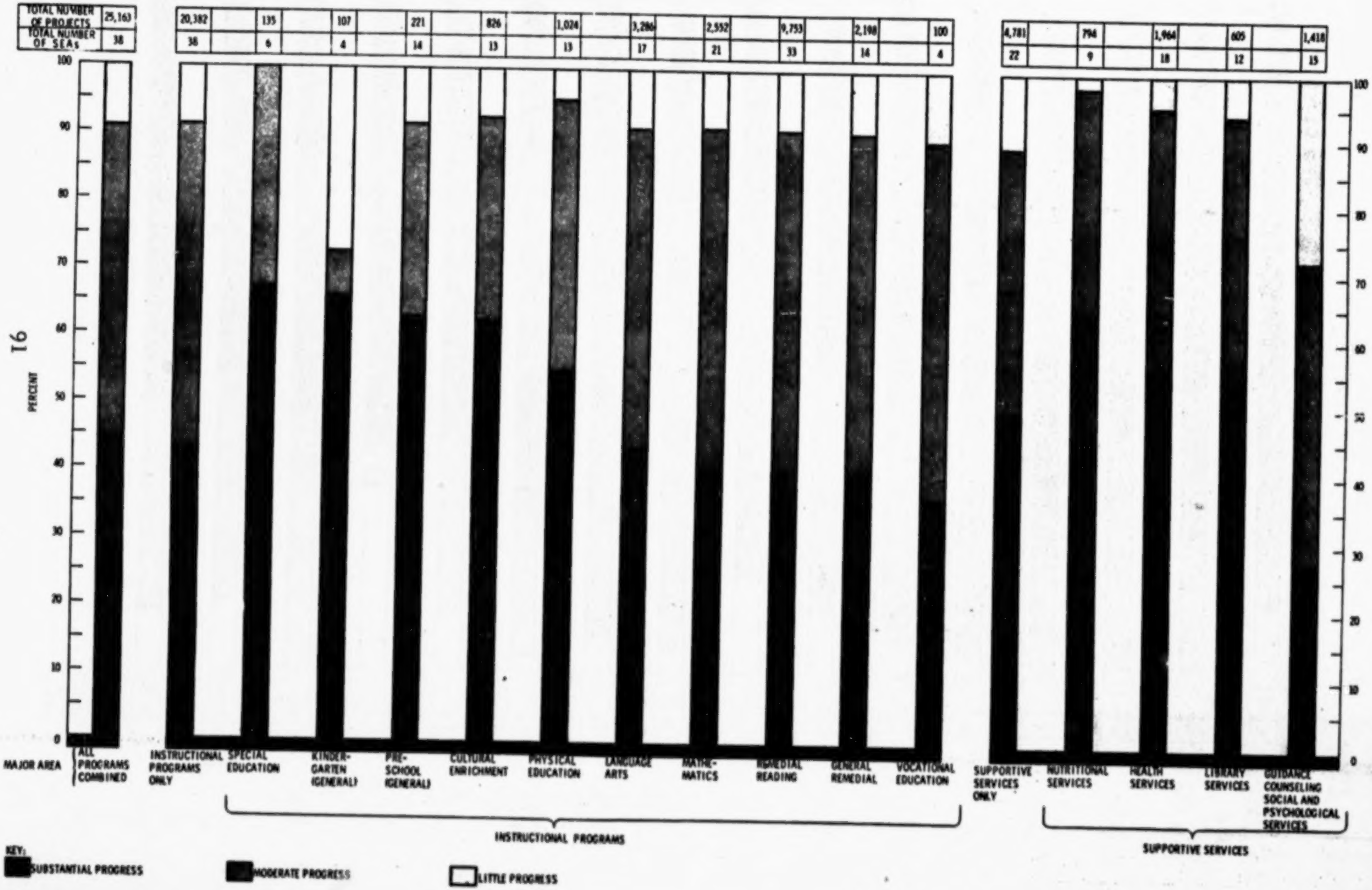
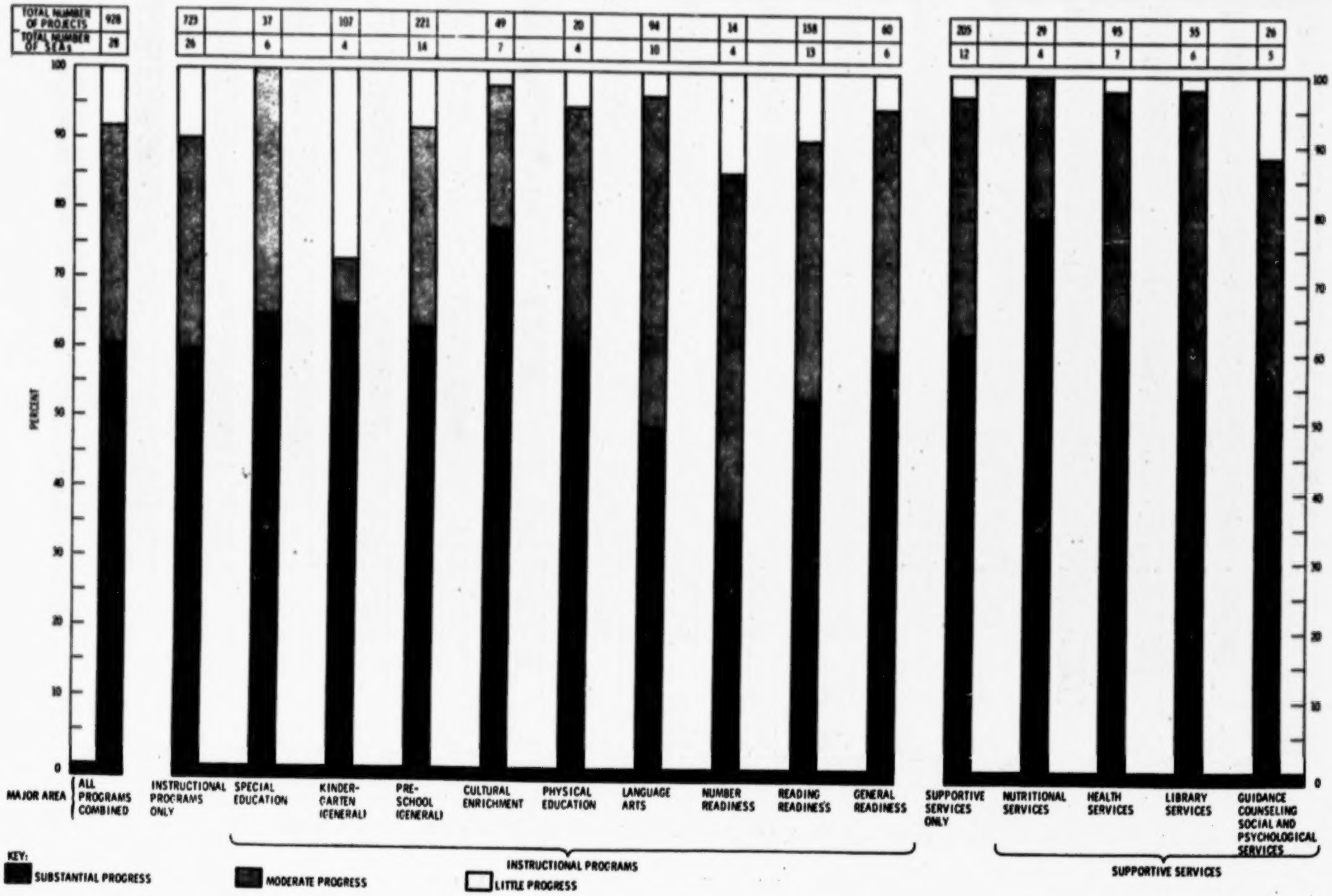


Exhibit A-2. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives, As Reported by SEAs: Preschool/Kindergarten



MAJOR AREA	TOTAL NUMBER OF PROJECTS	TOTAL NUMBER OF SEAs
ALL PROGRAMS COMBINED	928	29
INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS ONLY	723	26
SPECIAL EDUCATION	37	6
KINDERGARTEN (GENERAL)	107	4
PRE-SCHOOL (GENERAL)	221	14
CULTURAL ENRICHMENT	49	7
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	20	4
LANGUAGE ARTS	94	10
NUMBER READINESS	14	4
READING READINESS	158	13
GENERAL READINESS	60	6
SUPPORTIVE SERVICES ONLY	205	12
NUTRITIONAL SERVICES	29	4
HEALTH SERVICES	95	7
LIBRARY SERVICES	55	6
GUIDANCE COUNSELING SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES	26	5

PERCENT
100
90
80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
MAJOR AREA
ALL PROGRAMS COMBINED
INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS ONLY
SPECIAL EDUCATION
KINDER-GARTEN (GENERAL)
PRE-SCHOOL (GENERAL)
CULTURAL ENRICHMENT
PHYSICAL EDUCATION
LANGUAGE ARTS
NUMBER READINESS
READING READINESS
GENERAL READINESS
SUPPORTIVE SERVICES ONLY
NUTRITIONAL SERVICES
HEALTH SERVICES
LIBRARY SERVICES
GUIDANCE COUNSELING SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS
SUPPORTIVE SERVICES
KEY:
SUBSTANTIAL PROGRESS
MODERATE PROGRESS
LITTLE PROGRESS

Exhibit A-3. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives, As Reported by SEAs: Grades 1-3

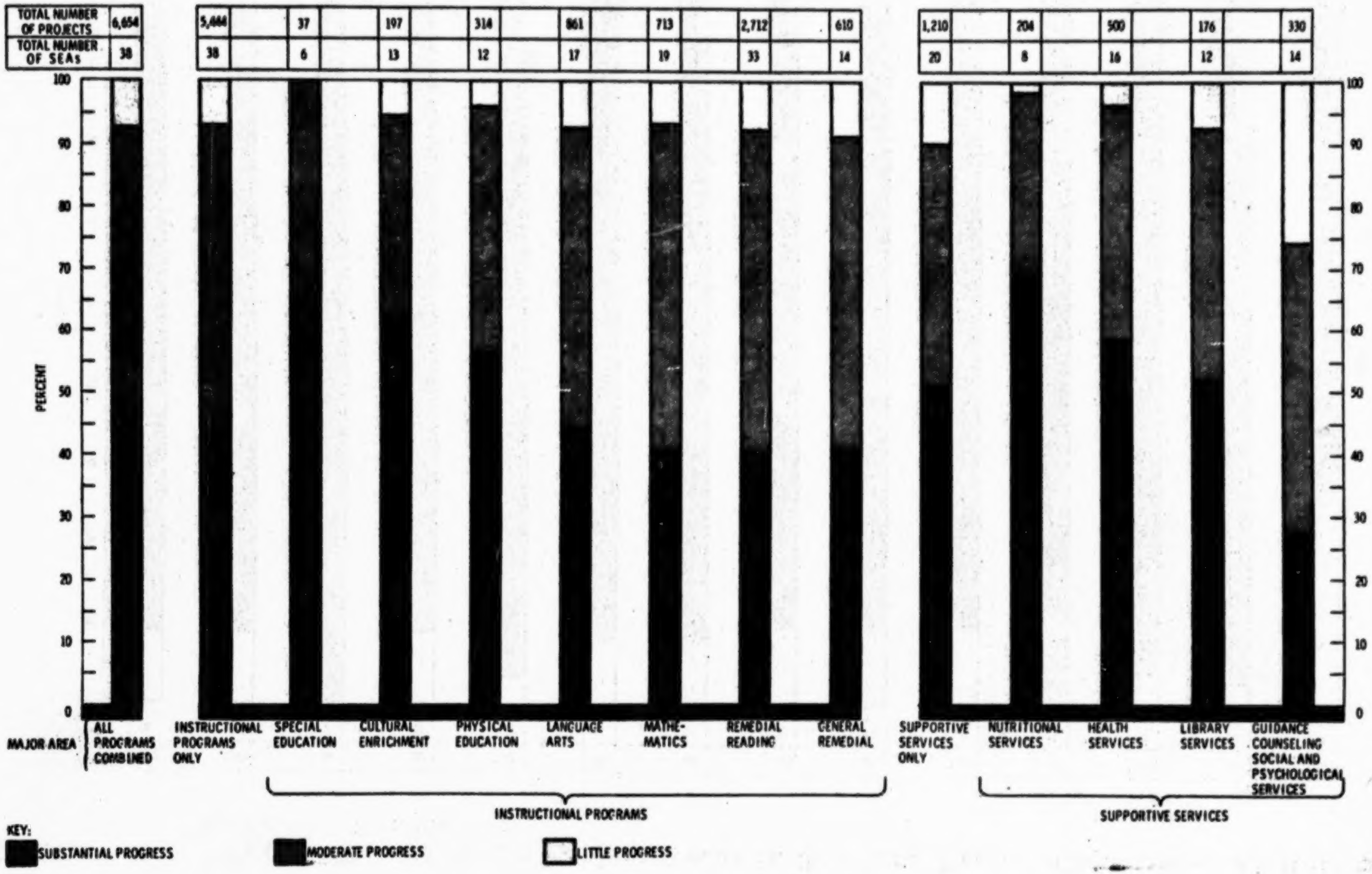


Exhibit A-4. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives, As Reported by SEAs: Grades 4-6

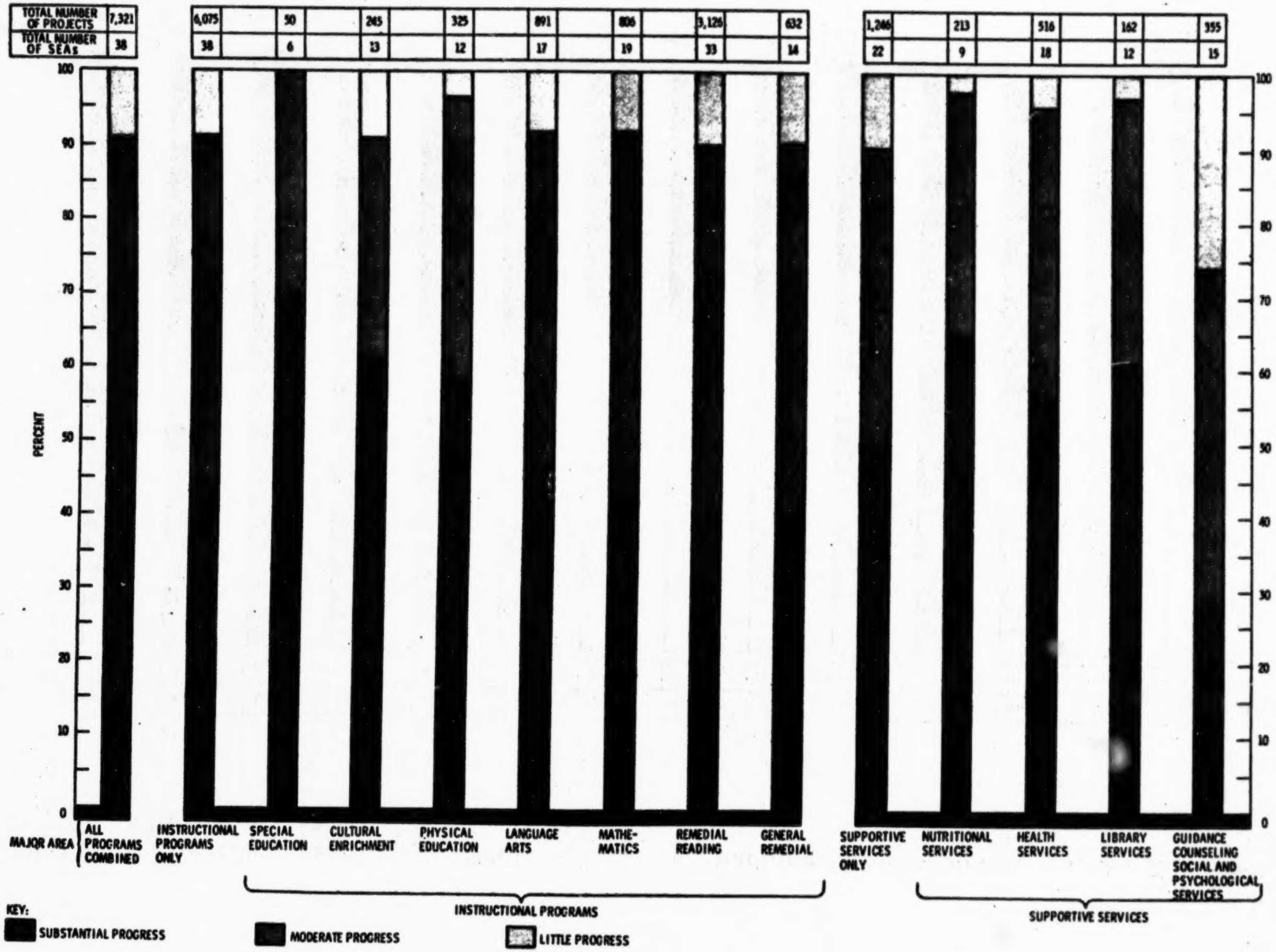


Exhibit A-5. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives, As Reported by SEAs: Grades 7-9

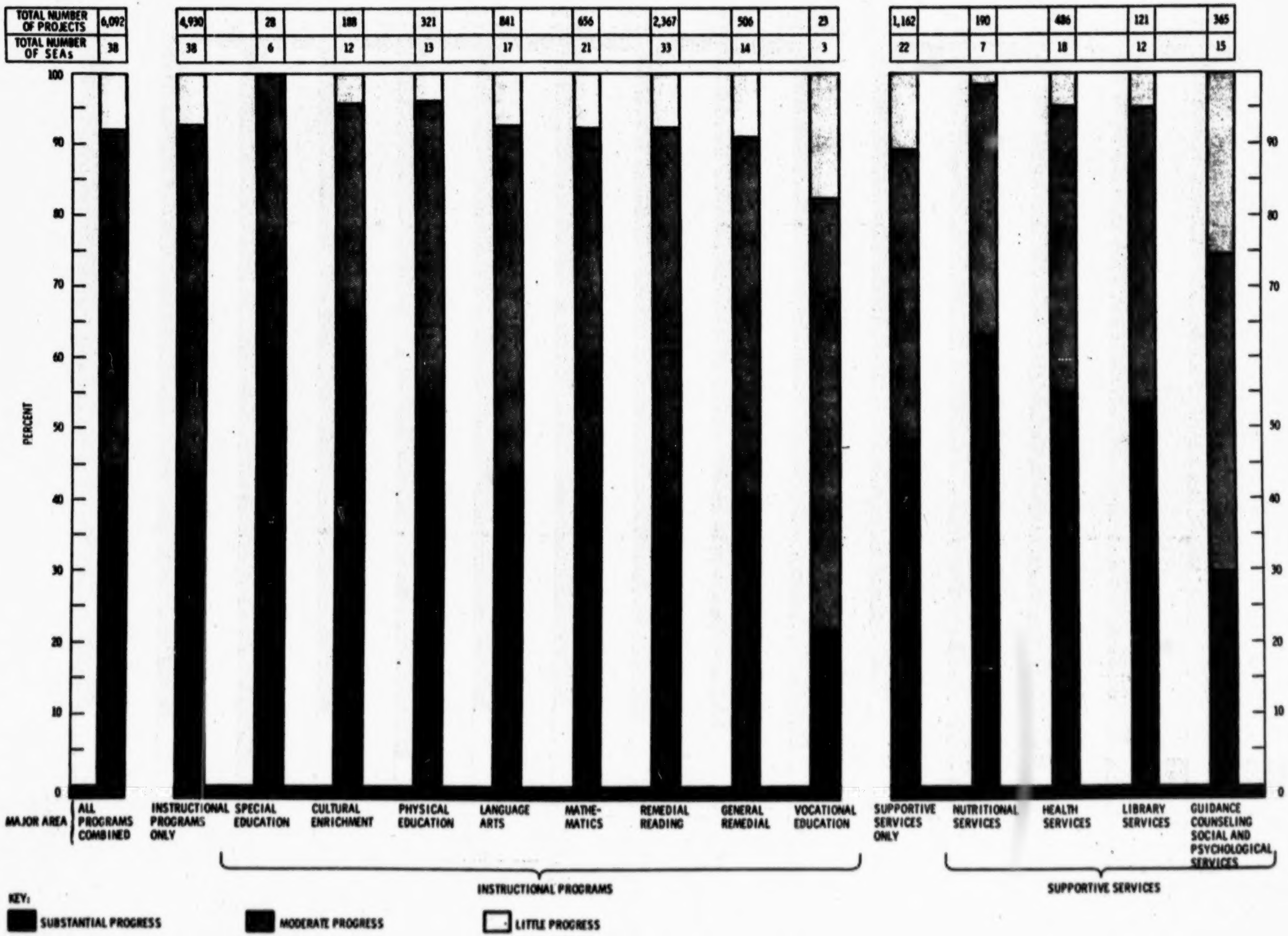


Exhibit A-6. Effectiveness of Major Project Areas in Reaching Project Objectives, As Reported by SEAs: Grades 10-12

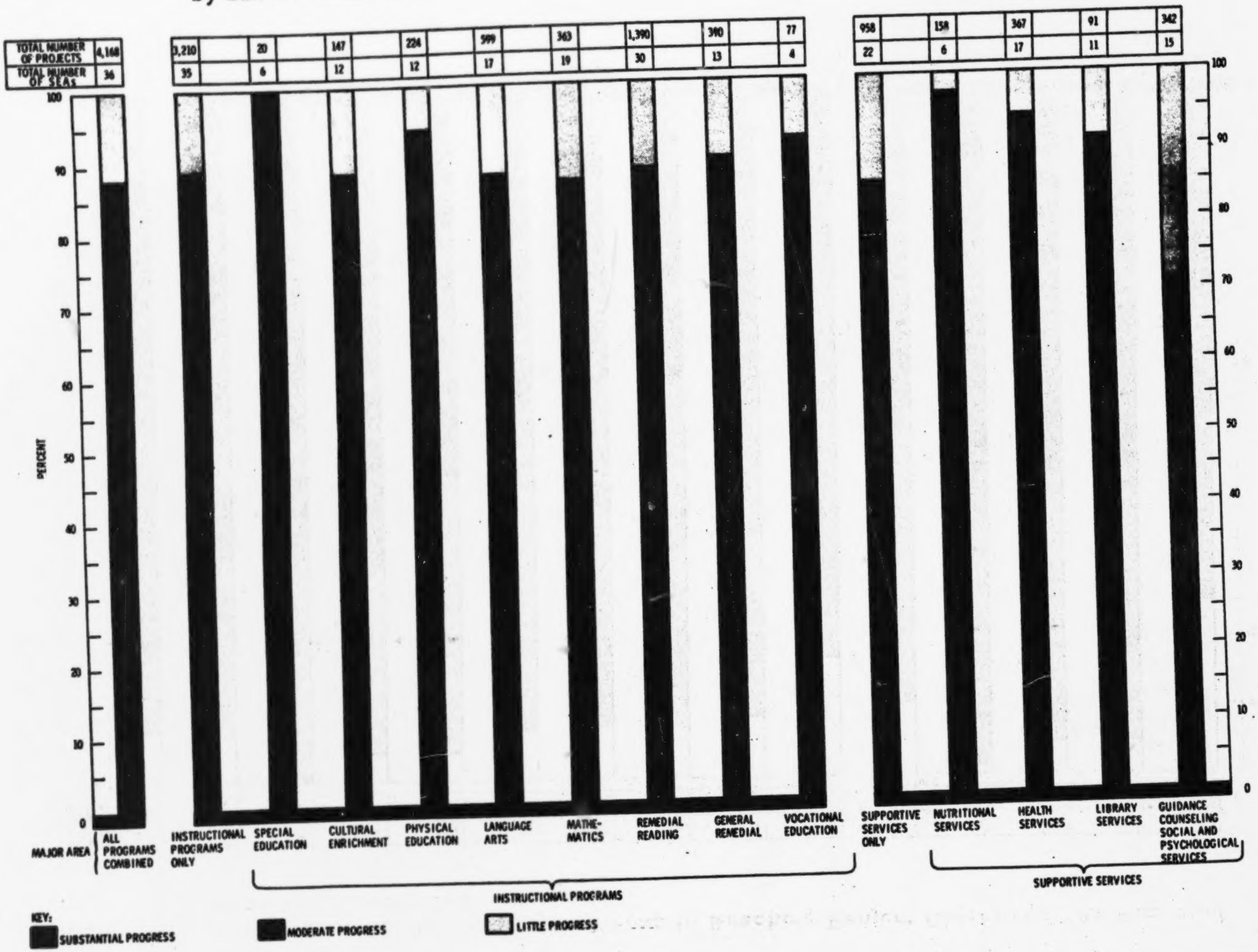


Exhibit A-7. Major Project Areas With Examples of Specific Activities as Reported by SEAs

1. **Reading, Language**
   - Reading
   - Training in communication skills
   - Remedial or basic language arts and reading
   - Remedial language arts laboratory

2. **Health**
   - Providing clothing, glasses, etc.
   - Providing food (breakfast, lunch, and snacks)
   - Providing medical, dental, and nursing services
   - Psychiatric services

3. **Preschool/Kindergarten**
   - Providing kindergarten programs
   - Providing preschool enrichment programs

4. **Cultural Experiences**
   - Special activities (field trips, puppet shows)
   - Enrichment programs

5. **Instructional Methods**
   - Self-pacing by student
   - Team teaching
   - Small group and individual instruction
   - Tutoring
   - Programmed instruction
   - Multi-media approach

6. **Counseling and Pupil Personnel**
   - Guidance and counseling services
   - Home-school contacts
   - Attendance and social workers
   - Social services

7. **Non-Academic Programs**
   - Work-study program
   - Vocational projects
   - Programs for arts, crafts, and music
   - Physical fitness programs
   - Industrial arts
   - Home economics

Exhibit A-7. (Continued)

8. Increasing Staff

Providing more teachers

Providing more teacher aides

Providing teaching specialists

Reducing class size

Providing other supplemental, subprofessional help

9. Academic Programs (excludes reading, language, and arithmetic)

Remedial instruction

Academic instruction

Transitional first and second grade

Basic skills improvements

10. Library Development

Providing library services and skills

Providing more books and related materials

11. Programs for Handicapped

Language programs for the deaf

Expanded services for the handicapped

Speech therapy

Initiating educational programs for the physically handicapped

12. Teacher/Staff Training

Inservice training for teachers and staff

Improving school environment and teacher competency

Pre-service training for staff

13. Increasing Equipment

Instructional materials

Purchasing special equipment, materials, and books

Waiver of fees for books, materials, and supplies

Providing transportation

14. Mathematics

Remedial mathematics

Basic mathematics

Arithmetic

15. Summer Programs

Summer school

Summer day camp

16. Behavior and Attitudes

Social adjustment classes

Improvement of self-image

Motivational programs

Exhibit A-7. (Continued)

17. Parent and Community Programs

Parent counseling and other services to parents

Educational programs for parents

School-community coordination

18. Programs for the Dropout-Prone

Continuation of education for dropouts

English programs for non-English-speaking individuals

Programs for pregnant, unmarried girls

Stay-in-school programs for potential dropouts

Programs for migrant workers

19. Development of Instructional Material

Curriculum materials center

Local curriculum development and improvement

20. Academic and Recreation Programs

Combined mathematics and physical education program

21. Special Services Personnel

Providing consultants

Special services team

22. Other

Providing community resource personnel

Cooperative interdistrict program

Testing program

Community service center

APPENDIX B

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS FROM OTHER SOURCES

Exhibit B-1. Entitlements and Expenditures Under Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, by State

United States and Outlying Areas	Fiscal Year 1966									
	Entitlements					Expenditures				
	Grants to Local Educational Agencies	State-Supported Schools for Handicapped Children	Total Grants	State Adminis-tration	Total Entitlements	Local Educational Agencies	State-Supported Schools for Handicapped Children	Total Project Expenditures	State Adminis-tration	Total Expenditures
50 States, D. C., and Outlying Areas Total	$1,164,524,100	$15,417,101	$1,180,446,201	$12,535,005	$1,192,981,206	$969,934,724	$11,165,689	$981,100,413	$6,495,758	$987,596,171
Alabama	34,634,567	148,665	34,783,232	347,832	35,131,064	30,452,240	129,737	30,581,977	62,730	30,644,707
Alaska	1,797,914	-	1,797,914	75,000	1,872,914	1,503,828	0	1,503,828	25,778	1,529,606
Arizona	10,360,005	173,856	10,533,861	105,339	10,639,200	8,437,731	142,364	8,580,095	77,863	8,657,958
Arkansas	22,600,021	150,404	22,750,425	227,504	22,977,929	20,387,723	142,782	20,530,505	114,715	20,645,220
California	77,975,731	567,580	78,543,311	785,433	79,328,744	67,153,705	446,835	67,600,540	395,119	67,995,659
Colorado	9,755,134	367,393	10,122,527	101,225	10,223,752	7,530,729	317,915	7,848,644	65,953	7,914,597
Connecticut	7,196,504	433,574	7,630,078	76,301	7,706,379	5,184,050	360,736	5,544,786	48,034	5,592,820
Delaware	1,975,217	141,033	2,116,250	75,000	2,191,250	1,361,860	92,868	1,454,728	20,093	1,474,821
Florida	27,478,937	404,666	27,883,603	278,836	28,162,439	26,589,209	345,634	26,934,843	268,326	27,203,169
Georgia	37,342,341	48,563	37,390,904	373,909	37,764,813	34,556,713	33,851	34,590,564	154,826	34,745,390
Hawaii	2,374,944	136,561	2,511,505	75,000	2,586,505	2,187,714	34,441	2,222,155	68,416	2,290,571
Idaho	2,544,238	45,504	2,589,742	75,000	2,664,742	2,475,673	45,504	2,521,177	43,024	2,564,201
Illinois	61,112,154	428,026	61,540,180	615,402	62,155,582	40,851,335	331,287	41,182,622	404,962	41,587,584
Indiana	18,378,029	556,916	18,934,945	189,349	19,124,294	14,309,010	191,585	14,500,595	71,735	14,572,330
Iowa	18,652,957	314,358	18,967,315	189,673	19,156,988	15,074,970	292,968	15,367,938	77,671	15,445,609
Kansas	10,595,499	224,603	10,820,102	108,201	10,928,303	9,636,657	224,304	9,860,961	39,917	9,900,878
Kentucky	30,131,330	106,074	30,237,404	302,374	30,539,778	27,189,272	55,974	27,245,246	132,773	27,378,019
Louisiana	38,344,221	166,935	38,511,156	385,112	38,896,268	24,058,225	130,524	24,188,749	158,945	24,347,694
Maine	4,014,213	90,036	4,104,249	75,000	4,179,249	3,429,167	54,185	3,483,352	34,514	3,517,866
Maryland	15,249,238	262,785	15,512,023	155,120	15,667,143	9,324,578	162,996	9,487,574	63,332	9,550,906
Massachusetts	16,539,689	730,385	17,270,074	172,701	17,442,775	8,175,597	260,885	8,436,482	15,372	8,451,854
Michigan	34,734,957	580,596	35,315,553	353,156	35,668,709	30,995,688	500,092	31,495,780	262,330	31,758,110
Minnesota	24,530,168	606,755	25,136,923	251,369	25,388,292	17,811,837	287,873	18,099,710	98,868	18,198,578
Mississippi	30,894,244	-	30,894,244	308,942	31,203,186	20,882,697	0	20,882,697	108,498	20,991,195
Missouri	29,857,937	357,383	30,215,320	302,153	30,517,473	23,378,504	159,904	23,538,408	91,762	23,630,170
Montana	3,756,470	138,235	3,894,705	75,000	3,969,705	2,959,496	138,234	3,097,730	74,718	3,172,448
Nebraska	6,929,812	136,909	7,066,721	75,000	7,141,721	4,948,578	77,630	5,026,208	57,044	5,083,252
Nevada	949,969	13,866	963,835	75,000	1,038,835	701,346	13,365	714,711	12,002	726,713

Exhibit B-1. (Continued)

United States and Outlying Areas	Fiscal Year 1966									
	Entitlements					Expenditures				
	Grants to Local Educational Agencies	State-Supported Schools for Handicapped Children	Total Grants	State Administration	Total Entitlements	Local Educational Agencies	State-Supported Schools for Handicapped Children	Total Project Expenditures	State Administration	Total Expenditures
New Hampshire	1,452,253	58,444	1,510,697	75,000	1,585,697	1,074,784	20,339	1,095,123	20,220	1,115,343
New Jersey	24,560,286	1,058,106	25,618,392	256,184	25,874,576	21,294,266	967,524	22,261,790	171,507	22,433,297
New Mexico	9,789,895	211,491	10,001,386	100,014	10,101,400	9,587,209	189,751	9,776,960	65,969	9,842,929
New York	109,670,427	2,707,272	112,377,699	1,123,777	113,501,476	109,670,427	1,980,943	111,651,370	916,128	112,567,498
North Carolina	52,826,063	394,484	53,220,547	532,205	53,752,752	45,436,417	16,369	45,452,786	107,594	45,560,380
North Dakota	5,219,893	70,649	5,290,542	75,000	5,365,542	3,067,467	38,170	3,105,637	41,518	3,147,155
Ohio	39,185,691	327,292	39,512,983	395,130	39,908,113	34,169,403	312,211	34,481,614	174,538	34,656,152
Oklahoma	17,393,688	59,173	17,452,861	174,529	17,627,390	16,890,403	59,173	16,949,576	121,264	17,070,840
Oregon	8,231,740	312,765	8,544,505	85,445	8,629,950	6,949,215	262,430	7,211,645	51,539	7,263,184
Pennsylvania	55,941,428	1,345,289	57,286,717	572,867	57,859,584	47,240,547	783,248	48,023,795	151,728	48,175,523
Rhode Island	4,039,555	109,713	4,149,268	75,000	4,224,268	2,896,352	59,401	2,955,753	26,675	2,982,428
South Carolina	27,478,721	148,140	27,626,861	276,269	27,903,130	21,123,644	52,629	21,176,273	132,419	21,308,692
South Dakota	6,936,594	97,267	7,033,861	75,000	7,108,861	4,317,990	87,654	4,405,644	54,920	4,460,564
Tennessee	32,206,225	87,670	32,293,895	322,939	32,616,834	29,307,398	83,319	29,390,717	144,384	29,535,101
Texas	77,638,778	465,160	78,103,938	781,039	78,884,977	65,407,333	306,303	65,713,636	547,294	66,260,930
Utah	2,853,159	76,560	2,929,719	75,000	3,004,719	2,880,192	47,081	2,927,273	69,652	2,996,925
Vermont	1,744,857	79,122	1,823,979	75,000	1,898,979	1,519,536	61,133	1,580,669	17,490	1,598,159
Virginia	30,619,294	41,551	30,660,845	306,608	30,967,453	20,889,005	40,344	20,929,349	37,769	20,967,118
Washington	10,757,118	300,363	11,057,481	110,574	11,168,055	10,021,552	291,108	10,312,660	108,637	10,421,297
West Virgnia	16,991,225	88,715	17,079,940	170,799	17,250,739	14,662,881	78,959	14,741,840	46,690	14,788,530
Wisconsin	18,058,203	264,247	18,322,450	183,224	18,505,674	13,014,709	194,980	13,209,689	67,874	13,277,563
Wyoming	1,555,058	88,618	1,643,676	75,000	1,718,676	1,169,864	64,798	1,234,662	47,294	1,281,956
District of Columbia	5,381,927	193,349	5,575,276	75,000	5,650,276	5,381,927	193,349	5,575,276	60,549	5,635,825
American Samoa	209,336	-	209,336	25,000	234,336	0		0	0	0
Guam	628,008	-	628,008	25,000	653,008	525,394		525,394	11,120	536,514
Puerto Rico	21,347,116	-	21,347,116	213,471	21,560,587	18,952,714		18,952,714	213,471	19,166,185
Trust Territories	788,241	-	788,241	25,000	813,241	618,170		618,170	13,195	631,365
Virgin Islands	317,881	-	317,881	25,000	342,881	317,793		317,793	25,000	342,793

Source: Annual Report of Federal Assistance Program, OE 4319 (6-66).

Exhibit B-2. Number of New Staff Positions,(1) Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

Fiscal Year 1966

Staff Position	Number
Total, All Positions	381,700
Teachers	200,500
Pre-Kindergarten	4,000
Kindergarten	9,500
Elementary	132,000
Secondary	52,900
Special Education	2,100
Other Professional	64,500
Supervision/Administration	17,700
Counseling, Testing, and Psychologist	9,300
Librarian	8,200
Nurse	4,900
Social Work/Attendance	2,900
Speech Therapist	1,900
Physician	1,000
Dentist	800
Other	17,800
Nonprofessional	116,700
Teacher Aide	73,000
Other	43,700

Note: (1) Includes full-time, part-time, regular, and temporary positions.

Source: 1965-66 Statistical Report of Title I Program Activities, ESEA PL 89-10, OE 4375 (8-66).

Exhibit B-3. Children Participating and Funds Obligated, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, by State

Summer Programs, Fiscal Year 1966

State	Children Participating	Funds Obligated	State	Children Participating	Funds Obligated
United States	2,702,100	$236,147,400			
Alabama	124,630	9,073,100	New Mexico	17,430	962,800
Alaska	1,020	189,200	New York	235,020	22,368,000
Arizona	14,290	935,200	N. Carolina	113,220	13,663,400
Arkansas	20,150	1,203,400	N. Dakota	4,890	602,800
California	146,700	10,141,400	Ohio	150,630	16,314,700
Colorado	16,740	2,125,200	Oklahoma	22,370	643,000
Connecticut	12,280	1,193,500	Oregon	11,760	1,438,000
Delaware	3,650	550,200	Pennsylvania	165,260	17,914,200
Florida	97,650	2,912,900	Rhode Island	11,560	1,779,100
Georgia	63,600	6,640,500	S. Carolina	37,640	3,979,700
Hawaii	15,720	540,800	S. Dakota	8,300	655,500
Idaho	6,240	323,200	Tennessee	54,360	4,521,700
Illinois	220,080	7,275,100	Texas	148,950	13,444,200
Indiana	60,800	3,693,800	Utah	3,430	194,000
Iowa	32,870	3,126,300	Vermont	2,990	357,100
Kansas	24,120	1,487,500	Virginia	71,080	10,686,900
Kentucky	72,910	9,178,600	Washington	19,370	1,311,900
Louisiana	54,420	6,193,000	W. Virginia	55,380	5,844,800
Maine	6,190	668,100	Wisconsin	30,110	3,411,500
Maryland	39,090	5,190,000	Wyoming	3,120	170,900
Massachusetts	44,790	4,488,400	District of Columbia	24,040	2,877,100
Michigan	93,000	9,224,700			
Minnesota	59,650	6,092,700			
Mississippi	28,260	2,623,700	American Samoa	0	0
Missouri	45,530	4,079,500	Guam	1,280	66,900
			Puerto Rico	113,290	4,633,500
Montana	15,490	1,410,100	Trust Terr.	3,900	571,700
Nebraska	14,920	1,260,000	Virgin Is.	1,770	128,500
Nevada	1,470	250,900			
New Hampshire	2,680	274,200			
New Jersey	52,010	5,261,300			

Source: Survey of Title I Supported Programs, ESEA PL 89-10, OE 4361 (5-66).

Exhibit B-4. Children Participating, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, by Grade Span

Summer Programs, Fiscal Year 1966

Grade Span	Children Participating	
	Number	Percent
Total, All Grades	2,702,100	100.0
Pre-Kindergarten	119,420	4.4
Kindergarten	209,080	7.7
Grades 1-3	722,420	26.7
Grades 4-6	848,890	31.4
Grades 7-9	498,860	18.5
Grades 10-12	303,430	11.2

Source: Survey of Title I Supported Programs, ESEA PL 89-10, OE 4361 (5-66).

Exhibit B-5. New Staff Positions Reported by 32 Big Cities

Staff Positions	Number
Total, All Positions	45,610
Total Professional Staff	36,880
Teachers	25,330
Preschool/Kindergarten	1,720
Elementary	15,990
Secondary	7,390
Handicapped	230
Other Professional Staff	11,550
Administrative/Supervisory	1,060
Pupil Services(1)	1,470
Librarians	740
Health Services(2)	290
Other	7,990
Nonprofessional Staff	8,730
Teacher Aides	5,380
Other Nonprofessional Staff	3,350

Notes: (1) Pupil services included: counseling, testing, and psychological services (1,090); social work and attendance services (240); and speech therapists (140).

(2) Health services included: physicians (30), dentists (20), and nurses (240).

Source: 1965-66 Statistical Report of Title I Program Activities, ESEA PL 89-10, OE 4375 (8-66).

APPENDIX C

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION GUIDE FOR STATE ANNUAL EVALUATION REPORTS

OE 4320 (6-66)

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Office of Education
Washington, D.C. 20202

Budget Bureau No.
51-R 558
Approval Expires:
10-15-67

Division of Program Operations

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 - Title I

State Annual Evaluation Report for Previous Fiscal Year

This report is to be filed with the U.S. Office of Education on or before December 15th of each year. (Submit 5 copies)

Note:
Use of representative sampling in preparing sections of this report is encouraged.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS WITH REGARD TO

PUBLIC LAW 89-313

If special efforts were expended for programs involving handicapped children, please append answers to starred (*) questions as they relate to your State's analysis of these programs.

Wherever LEA is mentioned in these starred items, substitute the phrase: State agency directly responsible for schools for handicapped children.

PART I:

*1. OPERATION AND SERVICES:

In a few paragraphs, indicate the types of services that the State Educational Agency has provided to Local Educational Agencies (including site visits, regional conferences, consultants, data processing, etc.)

*2. DISSEMINATION:

(a) Describe how local projects are disseminating data--
(1) to other local agencies
(2) to the State agency

(b) Describe State plans and arrangements for disseminating information on promising educational practices.

3. EVALUATION:

*(a) Describe guidelines, modifications of previous guidelines, and other types of assistance your State has provided to local agencies for evaluating Title I projects.

*(b) List the names and titles of all State personnel involved in providing evaluation assistance.

*(c) List the names, titles, and institutions or agencies of all consultants involved in providing evaluation assistance to the State.

(d) How many projects employed each of the following evaluation designs?

Number of Projects	Evaluation Design
	Two group experimental design using the project group and a conveniently available non-project group as the control.
	One group design using a pretest and posttest on the project group to compare observed gains or losses with expected gains.
	One group design using pretest and/or posttest scores on the project group to compare observed performance with local, State, or national groups.
	One group design using test data on the project group to compare observed performance with expected performance based upon data for past years in the project school.
	One group design using test data on the project group, but no comparison data.
	Other (specify)

*4. MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS

(a) Under each of the following categories, describe the major problems encountered by your State in administering the Title I program; (1) Reviewing Proposals, (2) Operation and Service, (3) Evaluation, (4) Other.

(b) List and briefly describe any suggestions or recommendations for revising the legislation in order to alleviate these problems.

*5. IMPLEMENTATION OF SECTION 205 (a) (1)

(a) In order of prevalence, describe the types of projects that were not approvable when first submitted on the basis of size, scope and quality. (This may include projects that were revised substantially and then approved.)

(b) In order of prevalence, describe the common misconceptions of local educational agencies concerning the purposes of Title I and the requirements for size, scope and quality.

6. COORDINATION OF TITLE I AND COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAMS

(a) Number of projects in the local educational agencies that serve an area where there is an approved Community Action Program.

(b) Total amount of Title I money approved for LEA's where there is an approved Community Action Program.

(c) What action has been taken at the State level to insure coordination and cooperation between Title I applicants and Community Action Agencies at the local level, (include relationship with State Technical Assistance Agency.)

(d) List and briefly describe the successes in securing Community Action Agency--Local Education Agency cooperation.

(e) List and briefly describe the problems in securing Community Action Agency--Local Education Agency cooperation.

*(f) List and briefly describe the inter-relationships of the two programs at the local level particularly the extent to which the two acts are used in a reinforcing manner.

*(g) List and briefly describe any suggestions or recommendations for revising the legislation concerning Community Action Programs as they relate to Title I.

*7. INTER-RELATIONSHIP OF TITLE I WITH OTHER TITLES OF ESES

How are funds for Title I being used in connection with:

(a) Title II

(b) Title III

(c) Title IV

(d) Title V

(Include specific examples)

(e) List and briefly describe the successes in developing and implementing projects relating Title I with other Titles of ESEA.

(f) List and briefly describe the problem areas involved in developing and implementing projects relating Title I with other Titles of ESEA.

(g) Describe any suggestions or recommendations for revising the legislation that would facilitate a more effective use of Titles II, III, IV, and V in reinforcing Title I.

*8. COOPERATIVE PROJECTS BETWEEN DISTRICTS:

(a) List and briefly describe the successes in developing and implementing cooperative projects between two or more districts.

(b) List and briefly describe the problem areas involved in developing and implementing cooperative projects between two or more districts.

(c) List and briefly describe any suggestions or recommendations for revising the legislation concerning cooperative projects between districts.

9. NON-PUBLIC SCHOOL PARTICIPATION:

*(a) What steps have been or are being taken to encourage initiative of the local administrators in contacting non-public school officials?

*(b) What successes have been experienced in developing and implementing public and non-public school cooperative projects.

*(c) What problems have been experienced in developing and implementing public and non-public school cooperative projects.

*(d) List and briefly describe any suggestions or recommendations for revising the legislation concerning public and non-public school participation.

(e) Number of projects and non-public school children participating by type of arrangement.

Schedule	On Public School Grounds Only		On Non-Public Schools Grounds Only		On both Public & Non-Public School Grounds		On Other than Public or Non-Public Sch. Grounds	
	Proj	*Children	Proj	*Children	Proj	*Children	Proj	*Children
Regular School Day								
Before School Day								
After School								
Weekend								
Summer								
Reg. Sch. Day & Before School								
Reg. Sch. Day & After School								
Reg. Sch. Day & Weekend								
Reg. Sch. Day & Summer								
Before & After School								
After School & Weekend								
After Sch., Weekend & Summer								
After School & Summer								
Reg. Sch. Day, Before Sch. and After School								
Reg. Sch. Day, Before Sch. After Sch. Weekend, & Summer								
Other (Specify)								
TOTAL								

*This figure is not expected to be an unduplicated count of children.

*10. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

(a) If your State has printed State guidelines or disseminated other publications for implementing Title I programs, please enclose five copies of each.

(b) If your State has contracted for evaluations of Title I programs or if LEA's have contracted with outside agencies for such evaluations, please enclose five copies of each evaluation.

(c) Submit a compilation of objective measurements of educational attainment for programs funded under Title I. (For example, a table of pre and post-test scores for a group of projects having similar objectives and using the same standardized instrument and given at similar times.)

(d) Continue to supply complete data on the previously submitted 10% sample of approved fiscal 1966 grants.

PART II COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS

Each question in this section is to be answered separately for each of the five Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's) listed below. (See instructions on page 15 for detailed definitions and classifications.

*1. STATISTICAL INFORMATION

Classification	Number of LEA's for which Title I programs have been approved	Funds Actually Committed	Unduplicated Count of Children				Average cost per pupil Col. 3 by Col. 4
			Total Col. 5, 6 & 7	Public	Non Public	Not Enrolled	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
TOTAL							

2. ESTABLISHING PROJECT AREAS:

List in rank order the most widely used methods for establishing project areas. (For example, census information, AFDC payments, health statistics, housing statistics, school surveys, etc.)

*3. **NEEDS:**

List in rank order and describe the most pressing pupil needs in your State that Title I identified to meet. (For example, inadequate command of language, poor health of the children, inadequate nutrition, speech defects, etc.

*4. **LOCAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCY PROBLEMS:**

List and briefly describe the principal problems local officials encountered in implementing projects. (Be specific; for example, if lack of personnel is a problem indicate what types of personnel.)

*5. **PREVALENT ACTIVITIES:**

List the most prevalent types of Title I activities in your State.

*6. **INNOVATIVE PROJECTS:**

List and briefly describe innovative and/or exemplary projects or activities that include new approaches for each classification of LEA. Please specify State project number. (One criterion in selecting an innovative project is whether it merits dissemination to other LEA's with similar characteristics.) Also include human interest materials or incidents involving Title I projects.

*7. **METHODS OF INCREASING STAFF FOR TITLE I PROJECTS:**

Summarize the methods LEA's are using to develop or increase staff for Title I projects.

8. **MEASURING INSTRUMENTS:**

For each school level, list the most prevalently used instruments including standardized achievement tests. (Indicate the form.)

(a) Pre-Kindergarten/Kindergarten
(b) Grades 1-3
(c) Grades 4-6
(d) Grades 7-9
(e) Grades 10-12

*9. **ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVE ACTIVITIES AND METHODS:**

(a) For each school level listed below, cite the five project activities which you judge to have been most effective. (Grade levels listed below are for clarification purposes.)

(1) Early years - (Pre-School through Grade 3)
(2) Middle years - (Grade 4 through Grade 6)
(3) Teen years - (Grade 7 through Grade 12)

(b) For each of the project activities you listed above, discuss the strengths and weaknesses of critical procedural aspects. (For example, facilities, materials, equipment, personnel qualifications and training, schedule, organization, evaluation, etc.)

10. **GENERAL ANALYSIS OF TITLE I**

Generalize about the effectiveness of Title I in enhancing educational opportunities, experiences, achievement, and general attitudes toward education.

PART III TABULAR DATA

Instructions: This section includes several two-way tables which should be adapted and completed by each State. Follow the specific instructions for each table.

TABLE 1 - For a selected sample of representative projects in skill development subjects and attitudinal and behavioral development, indicate the number of projects that employed each of the specified types of standardized tests and other measures.

Projects in: Skill Development Subjects						Projects in: Attitudinal & Behavioral Development				
	Pre-K/ Kind.	Grades 1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	Pre-K/ Kind.	Grades 1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12
Measures 1. Standardized Tests & Inventories										
a. Achievement										
b. Intelligence										
c. Aptitude										
d. Interest										
e. Attitude										
f. Others (Specify)										
2. Other Tests										
a. Locally Devised Tests										
b. Teacher Made Tests										
c. Others (Specify)										
3. Other Measures										
a. Teacher Ratings										
b. Anecdotal Records										
c. Observer Reports										
d. Others (Specify)										

TABLE 2 - Summary of Effectiveness for Types of Projects

For major types of projects (e.g. reading, arithmetic, preschool, health services, after school study centers, audio-visual, guidance services, etc.) construct tables summarizing the numbers of projects that showed substantial progress in achieving their objectives, showed some progress in achieving their objectives, and showed little or no progress in achieving their objectives.

Following is a sample table:

Reading Programs: General

	Primary Objective (Specify)			Objective 2 (Specify)		
School Level	Substantial Progress Achieved	Some Progress	Little or no Progress Achieved	Substantial Progress Achieved	Some Progress	Little or no Progress Achieved
Pre-Kind./ Kindergarten						
Grades 1-3						
Grades 4-6						
Grades 7-9						
Grades 10-12						
Totals						

TABLE 3

Definitions

Average Daily Attendance (ADA) - The aggregate days attendance of a given school during a given reporting period divided by the number of days school is in session during this period. Only days on which the pupils are under the guidance and direction of teachers should be considered as days in session. The reporting period is generally a given regular school term. The average daily attendance for groups of schools having varying lengths of terms is the sum of the average daily attendance obtained for the individual schools.

Average Daily Membership (ADM) - The aggregate days membership of a given school during a given reporting period divided by the number of days school is in session during this period. Only days on which the pupils are under the guidance and direction of teachers should be considered as days in session. The reporting period is generally a given regular school term. The average daily membership for groups of schools having varying lengths of terms is the sum of the average daily memberships obtained for the individual schools. For purposes of obtaining statistical comparability only, pupil-staff ratios involving kindergarten and nursery pupils attending a half-day session are computed as though these pupils are in membership for a half day.

TABLE NO. 3

AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE AND AVERAGE DAILY MEMBERSHIP RATES FOR TITLE I PROJECT SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH STATE NORM 1/

	If Possible 1963 - 1964				If Possible 1964 - 1965				1965 - 1966				1966 - 1967			
	Title I Schools		1/		Title I Schools		1/		Title I Schools		1/		Title I Schools		1/	
Grade	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM	ADA	ADM
12th Grade																
11th Grade																
10th Grade																
9th Grade																
8th Grade																
7th Grade																
6th Grade																
5th Grade																
4th Grade																
3rd Grade																
2nd Grade																
1st Grade																
Pre-Kind. Kind.																

See Attachment for definitions of "Average Daily Attendance" and "Average Daily Membership"

Purpose:
To obtain
% of attendance.

1/ State Norm can be one of the following: (1) All schools in the State; (2) All non- Title I schools in the State; or (3) A sample of non-Title I schools. Indicate which comparison group you are using.

TABLE 4

WORKSHEET FOR DETERMINING DROPOUT RATE

NAME OF SCHOOL____________________

GRADE____________

Month	Membership at Beginning of Month	Transfers		Graduates	Deaths	Dropouts	Membership at End of Month
		IN	OUT				
JULY							
AUGUST							
SEPTEMBER							
OCTOBER							
NOVEMBER							
DECEMBER							
JANUARY							
FEBRUARY							
MARCH							
APRIL							
MAY							
JUNE							
TOTALS	▨	▨	▨	3/	▨	2/	1/ ▨

CALCULATIONS:

Arithmetic Accountability
End of Year Membership 1/ ________
Number of Dropouts 2/ ________
Number of Graduates 3/ ________

TOTAL ________

Annual Dropout Rate = $\frac{\text{Number of Dropouts}}{\text{Arithmetic Accountability}}$

= ____________

TOTAL = ____________ %

TABLE 5 - Notes

The dropout rate should be computed as follows: 1/

Annual Dropout Rate = Number of Dropouts July 1 to June 30
Arithmetic Accountability July 1 to June 30 2/
Arithmetic Accountability = End of Year Membership (June 30) + All Graduates + Dropouts (July 1 to June 30)

1/

Dropout--A pupil who leaves a school, for any reason except death, before graduation or completion of a program of studies and without transferring to another school. (Schools must keep a complete accountability of a students throughout the year in order to differentiate between dropouts and transfers.) The term "dropout" is used most often to designate an elementary or secondary school pupil who has been in membership during the regular school term and who withdraws from membership before graduating from secondary school (grade 12) or before completing an equivalent program of studies. Such an individual is considered a dropout whether his dropping out occurs during or between regular school terms, whether his dropping out occurs before or after he has passed the compulsory school attendance age, and, where applicable, whether or not he has completed a minimum required amount of school work.
(Definition from: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Pupil Accounting for Local and State School Systems, State Educational Records and Reports Series: Handbook V, pp. 96-97.

2/

Arithmetic Accountability is determined by adding the following three items:

(A) End-of-the-year membership 3/ --The number of pupils on the current roll of a class or school as of June 30th of the year studied. (For example, if we were to study the 1964-1965 dropout rate, the end of year membership would be on June 30, 1965.) Make some exception for promotion dropout for the summer. Pupils graduating during this period of time are not included in the end-of-year membership.

(B) Graduate--An individual who has received formal recognition for the successful completion of a prescribed program of studies.

(C) Dropout--See above definition

3/

Special Note: The end of year membership includes all members of the grade on the last day of school which may precede June 30th. Those students who dropout between the last day of school and the following school year should be considered as a dropout for the new year.

DROPOUT RATES (HOLDING POWER) FOR TITLE I PROJECT SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH NON-TITLE I SCHOOLS

	If Possible 1963-1964		If Possible 1964-1965		If Possible 1965-1966		1966-1967		1967-1968	
Grade	Title I Sch.	Non Title I Sch.	Title I Sch.	Non Title I Sch.	Title I Sch.	Non Title I Sch.	Title I Sch.	Non Title I Sch.	Title I Sch.	Non Title I Sch.
12										
11										
10										
9										
8										
7										
(Lower grade levels, if appropriate)										
No. of Schools										
Total No. of Students										
No. of Dropouts										

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN TITLE I PROJECT HIGH SCHOOLS CONTINUING EDUCATION BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL COMPARED WITH STATE NORM 1/

	If Possible 1963 - 1964		If Possible 1964 - 1965		If Possible 1965 - 1966		1966 - 1967	
	Title I Schools	1/	Title I Schools	1/	Title I Schools	1/	Title I Schools	1/
TOTAL NUMBER OF GRADUATES								
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS								
MEAN SIZE OF GRADUATING CLASS								
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS HAVING 0 - 10% CONTINUING GRADS.								
11 - 20%								
21 - 30%								
31 - 40%								
41 - 50%								
51 - 60%								
61 - 99%								

A student is considered to continue his education if he enters one of the following, on either a full or part-time basis: Post-Graduate High School Course, Junior College, College or University, a Vocational, Commercial, or Technical Institute, or a Nursing School.

1/ State Norm can be one of the following: (1) All schools in the State; (2) All non-Title I schools in the State; or (3) A sample of non-Title I schools. (Indicate which comparison group you are using.)

TABLE 7

Tables for the most widely used tests in skill subjects for Title I beneficiaries for: 1964, 1965, 1966 (If beneficiaries are not possible, use Title I schools.)

(RESULTS FOR MOST WIDELY USED TESTS FOR ARITHMETIC)

TITLE I BENEFICIARIES (OR SCHOOLS)

Grade	Month & Year Tested	Test Name	Form	N Schools	N Students	Raw Score $\overline{X}$	Raw Score S.D.	Number of Students Or Schools			
								25th %ile	50th %ile	75th %ile	99th %ile

TABULAR DATA - 8

(A) Group by project objectives (e.g. improve reading skills, improve nutritional level, improve first grade readiness, improve speech, improve chances of remaining in school) the five most commonly funded Title I projects in your State.

(B) Within each of the five categories in (A) analyse the most common approaches used to reach these objectives.

Examples of these approaches would be:
provision of teacher aides,
provision of additional teacher time,
provision of equipment and supplies,
introduction of in-service training, etc.

APPENDIX

Special instructions for Classification Analysis

The Office of Education staff is interested in analyzing the various types of educational needs and Title I activities existing in participating local school districts. It is expected that these local educational agencies are in areas that differ substantially in resources, size, and a number of other significant factors. To provide for meaningful analysis, each State educational agency is asked to classify all local educational agencies for which Title I projects were received into categories that describe the areas which those agencies serve.

Although there are many ways to delimit urban areas, it is apparent that no single definition can fit all cases. The Office has decided that one gross "rural-urban" break would be meaningless. Therefore, the Office of Education is asking the States to employ a classification based on Bureau of Budget definitions. The key to this system is the "Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area" as defined by the Bureau of the Budget.

CLASSIFICATION A, B, and C include all local educational agencies serving school districts that are within an urban area listed in the attached booklet, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas--1964. These Agencies should be classified as A, B, or C.

CLASSIFICATION A includes the largest "core city" in the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA). If the Area is composed of "twin cities" or "tri-city" areas", such as Minneapolis-St. Paul, Classification A should represent all the large cities (in bold type in the attached booklet) as the SMSA.

CLASSIFICATION B includes all secondary cities within the SMSA that have populations of 50,000 or more. Also included in Classification B should be "older secondary cities" within the SMSA which have populations of less than 50,000. The "older secondary city" is characterized by a high incidence of low-income families, antiquated and high density housing, low mobility of inhabitants, or other traits which the States may use as criteria. States are urged to use their judgment in identifying and classifying "older secondary cities."

CLASSIFICATION C includes all other rural or urban areas within the SMSA which have a population of fewer than 50,000. These can be either incorporated or unincorporated areas.

CLASSIFICATION D includes all local educational agencies serving school districts in urban areas outside the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area which have populations between 2,500 and 49,999.

CLASSIFICATION E includes all local educational agencies serving school districts in rural areas outside Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas which have populations below 2,500.

Local Educational Agencies Serving Combined Areas

Local educational agencies serving school districts which meet the requirements of more than one of the above classifications should be assigned the classification of the area representing the largest number of students (total students--not low-income students) came.